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Episcopi Sarisburiensis.

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW:
OR,
Annals of Literature.

BY
A SOCIETY of GENTLEMEN.

VOLUME the SIXTY-EIGHTH.

——— *Nothing extenuate,
Nor set down aught in malice.*

SHAKSPEARE.

*Plorare suis non respondere favorem
Speratum meritis———*

HOR.



L O N D O N,
Printed for A. HAMILTON, in Falcon-Court, Fleet-street.
MDCCLXXXIX.

A D V E R T I S E M E N T.

IN the Advertisement to our LXVth Volume we explained the sources of our difficulties, and the attempts by which we purposed to remove them. They have undoubtedly succeeded in some degree; but the deficiency was so great, that a slight assistance could procure but an inadequate alleviation. Our chief consolation has, however, been, that the confidence of the Public in our judgment has not lessened; that we have experienced every mark of candour and respect from authors whose opinions have not coincided with our own; that our plan and our conduct have generally met with approbation, both on the continent and at home. These considerations must necessarily excite all our zeal, and awaken all our attention: they will forcibly impress on our minds the rule so often recommended to historians, '*Ne quid falsi dicere audeant, ne quid veri non audeant.*' But it is now necessary to be more particular.

The addition of an Appendix, we hoped, would have supplied all our demands, and given us that scope which was wanting to render our Journal a faithful picture of the literature of succeeding periods. We had room indeed to make some additions, which were indispensable; to extend our accounts of publications, either little known or not fully understood, and to insert occasionally some information respecting the more important works on the continent. But we soon anticipated the limits which the public had indulged us with; and our only apology must be, that we anticipated it not by frivolous contests, or interested explanations. We considered every line as devoted to the purposes either of utility or entertainment; as designed to inform our readers what had been done, how far the new discoveries were connected with former attempts, and often what remained to be performed. Science is, however, inexhaustible; the taste for literary information of every kind is not easily satiated; and we had often much to say, when our limits forbade us to enlarge. For proofs of the difficulties which we continue to feel, it is only necessary to refer our readers to many articles, which have been discontinued, and which we have not been able to resume, at a period of the year when new publications abound; and when, from these alone, our labours had been usually urgent and unre-mitted. We must, therefore, have continued to disappoint our readers, or extend the bulk of our Numbers, in the manner we have

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proposed.

A D V E R T I S E M E N T.

proposed. When the alternative was considered, little hesitation was necessary; and we trust the Public will be too candid and generous to disapprove of the attempt, when they reflect, that notwithstanding the numerous additional impediments in the way of publications, the advancement of literature and science has been chiefly attended to in our present arrangement. It should not be considered as again intruding on their indulgence; for we trust, that, except in peculiar emergencies, where the subjects will be a sufficient apology, the additional sheets will supersede the necessity of an Appendix.

Our extended limits will also permit the trial of an improvement, which we have long meditated, and which will, we think, render our Journal more complete.—In the Foreign Intelligence for December last, we explained the difficulties occasioned by having no English work, in which authors could give a short and early account of their attempts, either to gratify the curiosity of others, or ascertain their own titles to what they may have discovered. We offered a part of our Journal for that purpose; and it is now necessary to explain the manner in which this new attempt will be conducted. We find that authors will not be satisfied with having their accounts inserted in the Sketch of Foreign Literature; wishing, perhaps, to have a better claim to the public attention by a separate department. If therefore our proposal meets with their approbation and support, we shall occasionally give a concise Article of ‘Domestic Intelligence.’ Though our accounts must be short, we wish to receive the plans or the experiments at length: we will abridge them with care; mark on the copy the time of receiving, and return it, if required, to the author. By this plan, every advantage which can accrue to him, or the public, will be obtained; and every injury to his fame or to his emoluments avoided.—Whether this proposal be ever practised, or practised with effect, must depend on their opinion of it, and the encouragement they may think it merits.

We must not conclude without expressing our thanks for the attention and indulgence we have received, and our confidence in the patronage of the public, while we continue to deserve it.

A L P H A-

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T H E

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For JULY, 1789.

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IN our former account of the two first volumes (Crit. Rev. vol. LXIII. p. 454.) we mentioned sir John Fenn's design of publishing a Selection of Letters and Papers, written during the reigns of Henry VI. Edward IV. and Richard III. This is now executed with the same elegance, the same care, and ornaments by no means inferior. In reality, we perceive the manners of that æra delineated with no less spirit than fidelity. Letters written in the moment of the transactions describe the feelings with undiminished force; and in familiar ones, the mind seeks for no palliation, and is not restrained by those ideas of decorum which influence the language in more public situations. The period too in which these Letters were written is one that is little understood; for amidst the clamour of contending zealots, the picture is coloured only with the brightest or the darkest hue; and, if a few characters rise above the fury of faction, we generally find that what cannot be destroyed is lessened, and what party cannot blot it will attempt to fully. In this continuation the Letters are either of a public or of a private nature; either subservient to history, in its minuter and less important objects, the delineation of character; or useful, as they illustrate the mode of life and manners of that period. The first paper which occurs of the former kind is very interesting. Warwick, the governor of Henry the Sixth, was in a dangerous situation. The young king had two uncles, able, politic, and ambitious. His office was scarcely limited; and his conduct was exposed to the misrepresentation of disappointment, or the mistakes of ignorance. He wished to have his duty more strictly defined; and his representations on that subject show his

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B caution,

caution, his good sense, and his judgment. The questions are referred to the council.

‘ Item, the said earl desireth that where he shall have any person in his discretion suspect [*suspected*] of misgovernance, and not behoveful nor expedient to be about the king, except the estates of the house, that he may put them from exercise and occupation of the king’s service, till that he shall move have speech with my lord of Bedford, of Gloucester, and with the other lords of the king’s council, to that end that the default of any such person known unto him shall move ordain thereupon as them [*they*] shall think expedient and behoveful.

‘ Answer, it is agreed as it is desired.

‘ Item, the said earl desireth, that forasmuch as it shall be necessary to remove the king’s person at divers times into sundry places as the cases may require, that he may have power and authority to remove the king by his discretion into what place him [*he*] thinketh necessary for the health of his body and safety of his person.

‘ Answer, it is agreed as it is desired.

‘ Item, to the intent that it may be known to the king that it proceedeth of the assent, advice, and agreement, of my lord of Gloucester, and all my lords of the king’s council, that the king be chastised for his defaults or trespasses, and that for awe thereof he forbear the more to do amiss, and intend the more busily to virtue and to learning; the said earl desireth that my lord of Gloucester, and my said other lords of the council, or great part of them, that is to say, the chancellor, and treasurer, and of everych [*every*] estate in the council spiritual and temporal some come to the king’s presence, and there to make to be declared to him their agreement in that behalf.

‘ Answer. When the king cometh next to London, all his council shall come to his presence, and there this shall be declared to him.

‘ Item, the said earl, that all his days hath above all other earthly things desired, and ever shall, to keep his truth and worship unblemished and unhurt, and may not for all that let [*prevent*] inalicious and untrue men to make informations of his person, such as they may not, nor dare not stand by, nor be not true; beseecheth therefore my lord of Gloucester, and all my said lords of the council, that if they or any of them have been informed of any thing that may be or found to his charge or default, and namely in his occupation and rule about the king’s person, that the said earl may have knowledge thereof, to the intent that he may answer thereto, and not dwell in heavy or sinister conceit or opinion without his desert, and without answer.

‘ Answer, it is agreed.’

The curious original articles of impeachment against the duke

of Suffolk are also inserted. The duke of Norfolk's accusation of the earl of Somerset is found too in this collection.

At this period we find complaints of the partiality of judges, sheriffs, and juries, circumstances with which we are happily unacquainted. Even chief justice Paston, who, for his equity, was styled the good judge, is arraigned of having received retaining fees; and a petition is presented against him to parliament on this account. Justice Yelverton writes almost in the style of a retainer to sir John Fastolfe. Members of parliament were chosen without their appearance; and yet, from more than one letter, it seems, that instead of burthening them with a laborious and expensive office, the sheriff, in his return, seems to confer a benefit on them. On the other hand, the earl of Oxford writes to the sheriff of Norfolk to prevent him from quashing the indictments against some of those who were concerned in Cade's rebellion, which it was expected that he would have done. Many other evidences of partiality in judges, and instances of procuring verdicts, by the more powerful nobles appearing in court with a train of armed men, occur in these volumes. It is highly creditable to the earl of Oxford, who in his former letter expresses his wish to ease the commons, that in a future one, after stating some circumstances to the chief justice, relative to his tenants, 'he requests him to impanel a jury, and that they be directed to do as conscience will, and to eschew perjury.' The lord Scales, in a more private transaction, proceeds with equal honour and disinterestedness. Some cattle on his estate had been impounded; he requests that they may be set free, and that a day may be fixed for a reference, where any damage that law or reason may assign shall be paid. But this moderation, this forbearance, and this attention to equity or law, are not very common in these times: power was often in the place of right, and a violent seizure superseded a more exact enquiry. The old buildings, secured by draw-bridges and moats, had not always these distinctions for fear of the enemies of the country alone.

As the judge resided on the eastern side of Norfolk, we find piratical depredations not uncommon, and at that period the national marine was not very powerful. Ships were victualled by a kind of voluntary subscription, when designed to secure the coast against these temporary attacks, or for the more general service of the nation. The subscriptions were paid in money, in corn, in stores, or in other provision, according to the inclination of the subscribers.

In the next reign, during the convulsions which attended the seizure of the crown by Edward the Fourth, every act of violence was more frequent, and personal security was sometimes

obtained only by a constant force ready to repel attacks. Edward's journey through the kingdom, which was undertaken with a view to conciliate men's minds to his government, is well described in the letters before us; and the observations of the king, when applied to, show much moderation, judgment, and good sense. The warrant granted by him to an individual to levy arms is preserved; and an order for full payment of expences to some of his followers, is also inserted: if the latter be referred to the era of the temporary restitution of Henry, for the date is doubtful, it is equally curious. It is hinted in the notes, and some support is found in different passages of the Letters, that the animosity between individuals, from the contests of York and Lancaster, were not very lasting. Of the conduct of the wars we have no account; but, in a private contest, the siege of Caister affords some curious circumstances. Caister was in the possession of sir John Paston, as executor to sir John Fastolfe; but this castle had been bought by the duke of Norfolk, at a time when the seller possessed no right of conveying it. The castle was consequently retained; and the duke, according to the summary mode of redressing grievances then employed, besieged it with three thousand men. He took it, or at least it capitulated on terms, after a brave defence. The defender, however, the brother of sir John Paston, was in great danger, in consequence of an appeal, from the widows of two men killed by the defenders. He would have been tried for murder, if it had not been for a circumstance equally singular in our eyes. The duke brought one of the widows to London, and persuaded her to become his *waive*, or vassal, for one year, by which he seems to have acquired a right to prosecute the appeal for her. The stroke was warded off during the first year; and in the second, instead of again courting the protection of the duke, she chose that of another husband, and the appeal was no more heard of. In the preparation for that siege four soldiers were recommended to John Paston, and our readers will probably be pleased with seeing their qualifications.

« Right well beloved brother, I commend me to you, letting you weet that I have waged for to help you and Dawbeney to keep the place at Caister, four well assured and true men to do all manner of thing what that they be desired to do in safeguard, or inforcing (*strengthening*) of the said place; and moreover they be proved men, and cunning (*expert*) in the war, and in feats of arms, and they can well shoot both guns and crossbows, and amend and string them, and devise bulwarks, or any things that should be a strength to the place, and they will as need is, keep watch and ward, they be sad (*serious*) and well advised men, saving one of them, which is balled (*bald*), and called William Peny, which is as good a man as goeth on the earth

earth, saving a little, he will, as I understand, be a little cop-schotyn (*high crested*), but yet he is no brawler, but full of courtesy, much upon (*much like*) James Halman; the other three be named Peryn Sale, John Chapman, Robert Jack's Son (*Jackson*), saving that as yet they have none harness come, but when it cometh it shall be sent to you, and in the mean while I pray you and Dawbeney to purvey them some.'

One other circumstance, which we consider as curious, and is of a public nature, we shall extract: it relates to the exportation of wool.

'I suppose Playters shall be with you on Sunday or on Monday next coming if he may: ye have many good prayers of the poor people that God should speed you at this parliament, for they live in hope that ye should help to set a way that they might live in better peace in this country than they have done before, and that wools should be purveyed for, that they should not go out of this land, as it hath been suffered to do before, and then shall the poor people more live better than they have done by their occupation therein. Thomas Bone hath sold all your wool here for 20d. a stone, and good surety found to you therefore to be paid at Michaelmas next coming, and it is sold right well after that (*because*) the wool was for the most part right feeble.'

The Letters in these volumes are, as the editor observes, more frequently of a private kind, and descriptive of the mode of living and of the manners of the times, rather than of political transactions. Though written in the middle of the thirteenth century, the language is free, easy, and unaffected. Little compliments are delicately turned, and, except when the subject appears to be studied, we find no affected refinement of expression, no awkward inversion of the phraseology. When John Paston gives directions about his stockings, vol. ii. p. 225; when conversation is written down, as in p. 139, of the second volume, if a word or two be occasionally changed, it will appear to be the natural language of the present æra: 'making a letter,' instead of writing it, is a phrase which we find still prevails on the sea-coast. Some of the more modern contradictory words are occasionally avoided, and Margaret Paston very properly orders 'neck kerchys,' instead of neck *band* kerchiefs. Lest we should omit it, let us here remark, that 3l. 6s. 8d. was thought a good price for a Latin Bible, printed by Fust, in the original rude style in 1462. But we shall now pursue more regularly the information casually picked up from the Letters before us.

In private life, young ladies were educated at home, or more generally in the suite of ladies of rank and fortune. Their education

education consisted in the useful and ornamental parts of needle-work, as well as in the practical oeconomy of housekeeping. They seem to have been treated with an indelicate severity. Chastisement was not uncommon; and one of the daughters of Agnes Paston, but by no means her favourite, is said to have had her head frequently broken. The education of wards was very advantageous, and sought after, as is well known, by every method, without regarding what was either just, honest, or honourable. The possession of the ward's person gave a claim to the management of the estate; and therefore it was guarded with the most anxious caution. When removed, some one to resemble the ward accompanied, while the real ward was conveyed by night, or by the most unfrequented road; so that, in case of an attack, the fictitious minor was only seized. To prolong the advantages derived from this charge, it was not uncommon to delay the majority by a fictitious computation of his age, or to secure the estate by an early marriage with one of the guardian's own family. To grant a wardship was often the price of public or private services from the prince. Marriage, if it was suitable, was not unfrequently solicited by the young lady's friends; and, if the family of the Pastons be the criterion by which we are to judge of the manners in this respect, proper settlements in that way seem to have been looked for with much anxiety. A jointure of five marks annually (3l. 6s. 8d.) was considered as handsome; and three or four hundred pounds constituted an ample fortune. Land, at that time, seems to have been estimated at fourteen or fifteen years value; a reward of five marks yearly is offered to a person who should procure a place, during the time it is held.

The medical arrangements of that æra seem not to have been very scientific. We hear of the Leech of Orwall, without any particular character; and, at another time, a physician is sent for from Cambridge, so far as Norfolk: he is described as a 'right cunning man and a gentle.' Treacle seems to be a remedy of great importance; and to have the treacle of Genoa unadulterated, was an object of anxiety. Margaret Paston employs much time and attention to ascertain the comparative genuineness of different pots, and to describe them, so as not to be mistaken. Chardequins are recommended for unwholesome air; but we cannot discover what is meant by this title. Dates and cinnamon are sent for a lying-in woman, and green ginger of almonds is ordered, perhaps as a food in Lent.

The summary proceedings in the siege of Caister seem to show that law was sometimes suppressed by force; but sir John Fenn has very properly preserved every hint relative to the legal processes. The necessity of preserving the different papers is insisted

sisted on, and is a sufficient proof of the general regularity of the proceedings. Lawyers were so delicate that they would undertake no cause against the widow and son of a judge; and the antagonist applied to the court to be allowed counsel.

We have no very satisfactory account of the religion of that æra. The professors of religion do not seem to have been very careful of their own conduct, for the vicar of Paston denies his agreement after sir William's death; and what perhaps we should scarcely suspect, mass was no sanctuary for a debtor at that time. We find by some hints, that the confessors in great families had very powerful interest, and sometimes employed it improperly. A sermon of that age is however preserved, and is by no means a despicable performance: it is very short. The order of the temple of Syon sent an invitation to J. Paston, inviting him to a temporary residence in their convent; and we perceive that temporary retirements were not uncommon, sometimes for the sake of religion, and at others for the purposes of æconomy, since housekeeping at the castles was broken up, and the servants put on board-wages.

Of the miscellaneous circumstances we can select only a few. The hour of dinner seems to have been between nine and ten. The valuables were often cautiously concealed in unsuspected houses, and five hundred marks in money, (336l. 6s. 8d.) with as much in jewels and plate was considered as a very large fortune. Two pewter vessels, two ewers, and twelve candlesticks, were ordered by Margaret Paston, because there was not enough of these utensils.

Of the family to whom these Letters relate, there are some particulars which may appear interesting. Of sir William Paston we meet with nothing but what would constitute an honest worthy man. His son, however, seems to be a very inferior character. His loyalty is suspicious: even his honesty, in neglecting the affairs as executor of sir John Fastolfe, may perhaps be called in question: the masses for the repose of his father's soul, and of the knight's, are very irregularly paid for. Of Agnes Paston, the mother of John, and wife of sir William, we shall preserve the following excellent and tender letter, seemingly written soon after her husband's death.

' To my well beloved Son, John Paston, be this delivered in haste.

' Son, I greet you well, and let you weet, that for as much as your brother Clement letteth me weet that ye desire faithfully my blessing; that blessing that I prayed your father to give you the last day that ever he spake, and the blessing of all saints under heaven, and mine mote (must) come to you all days and times; and think verily none other but that ye have it, and shall have it, with that (on condition) that I find you

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kind and willing to the weal of your father's soul, and to the welfare of your brethren.

' By my counsel dispose yourself as much as ye may to have less to do in the world; your father said, "in little business lieth much rest." This world is but a thoroughfare, and full of woe; and, when we depart therefrom, right nought bear with us, but our good deeds and ill; and there knoweth no man how soon God will clepe (*call*) him; and therefore it is good for every creature to be ready. Whom God visiteth him he loveth.

' And as for your brethren they will I know certainly labour all that in them lyeth for you. Our Lord have you in his blessed keeping, body and soul. Written at Norwich, the 29th day of October.

' By your Mother,

' AGNES PASTON.'

Margaret Paston, in early life, seems to have been mild, gentle, amiable, and obedient. She commends herself to her husband with all 'her simple heart;' and when he is ill in London, urges him to return, for she 'had rather have him under her own care than a new gown, though it was of scarlet.' In more advanced life, however, this mildness is not so conspicuous. Yet in every part of her conduct she appears shrewd, discerning, attentive to her own and her children's interest, active, and judicious. We shall extract part of a letter, where she appears in the amiable character of a peace-maker; the last paragraph we add as a trait of human nature, which in every age is the same.

' I greet you well, and send you God's blessing and mine, letting you weet that I have received a letter from you, the which ye delivered to master Roger at Lynn, whereby I conceive that ye think ye did not well that ye departed hence without my knowledge, wherefore I let you weet I was right evil paid with you, your father thought, and thinketh yet, that I was assented to your departing, and that hath caused me to have great heaviness; I hope he will be your good father hereafter, if ye demean you well, and do as ye ought to do to him; and I charge you upon my blessing that in any thing touching your father that should be (*to*) his worship, profit, or avail, that ye do your devoir and diligent labour to the furtherance therein, as ye will have my good will, and that shall cause your father to be better father to you.

' I was told me ye sent him a letter to London, what the intent thereof was I wot not, but though he take it but lightly, I would ye should not spare to write to him again as lowly as ye can, beseeching him to be your good father; and send him such tidings as be in the country there ye be in, and that ye be ware of your expences better and (*than*) ye have been before this time,

time, and be your own purse-bearer, I trow ye shall find it most profitable to you.

'I would ye should send me word how ye do, and how ye have shifted for yourself since ye departed hence, by some trusty man, and that your father have no knowledge thereof; I durst not let him know of the last letter that ye wrote to me, because he was so fore displeased with me at that time.

'Item, I would ye should speak with Wykes, and know his disposition to Jane Walsham, she hath said, since he departed hence, but (*unless*) she might have him, she would never (*be*) married, her heart is fore set on him; she told me that he said to her, that there was no woman in the world he loved so well; I would not he should jape (*deceive*) her, for she meaneth good faith; and if he will not have her, let me weet in haste, for I shall purvey for her in other wise.'

The eldest son of Margaret seems to have been idle, inattentive, and dissolute; but his brother was able, active, and brave. Of the daughters we can only distinguish Mary, who with becoming spirit persisted in her attachment to Richard Calle, a retainer indeed of the family, but apparently an able and an honest man. A retainer in those times was by no means a servant, but sometimes a relation, or more frequently a dependant.

We have dwelt too long on this subject; but it is so seldom that we can catch an artless picture of the manners of remote ages, that we have copied its outlines with great care. We must now leave the work, with our acknowledgments to the very attentive and accurate editor, who has done every thing that could have been expected in his department; an office which may appear of inferior rank in the paths of literature, but which requires industry, knowledge, and, above all, an unwearied and patient attention.

An Account of the principal Lazarettos in Europe; with various Papers relative to the Plague: together with further Observations on some Foreign Prisons and Hospitals; and additional Remarks on the present State of those in Great Britain and Ireland. By John Howard, F. R. S. 4to. 15s. in Boards. Cadell.

EUROPE and Asia have long since observed and applauded the benevolent labours of Mr. Howard: eager, active, and unwearied, with a zeal approaching to enthusiasm, and a spirit raised above the most impending dangers, he has followed the objects of his pursuits in Turkey, and the baleful atmosphere of an hospital or a lazaretto. This volume, containing the result of his enquiries, is illustrated by numerous

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rous plates, which do not, however, appear to have enhanced the price of the work : they are executed by foreign artists with a freedom and clearness which merit our commendations. As the contents, however, of the book are a little miscellaneous, we shall give a short account of them, and enlarge on what may appear most useful and new.

Our author first goes to Marseilles, the port where the commerce of France in the Levant is chiefly carried on : the first engraved plan of the lazaretto at this place is given by Mr. Howard. It appears, on the whole, to be well regulated, and the different arrangements to be observed with that anxious attention which the importance of the subject demands. It is, however, to be observed, that the quarantine of the men is too strict and too long, that of the goods too short and too careless. If a ship has been from a suspected port forty-eight hours, the confinement of the men need not exceed five days, with the precaution only of bathing and putting on fresh cloaths, while their former habits perform the rest of the quarantine for them. Even in this short period we give them full time for the appearance of infection. The next lazaretto which Mr. Howard visits, is that of Genoa ; another belonging to the Genoese is also in the port of Spezia. At Leghorn are three lazarettos, extremely well conducted under the government of Leopold, whom Mr. Howard, in common with every traveller, calls the true father and friend of his country. At Malta this institution is of two kinds ; at one, ships with clean bills perform quarantine ; at the other, those which have foul bills : but the government of the grand-masters does not seem to be exemplary in any of its branches : the union of religion with civil and military government do not succeed very well in this æra, and perhaps they have been always equally unsuccessful. The lazarettos at Zante, Corfu, and Castel Nuovo in Dalmatia, are also described very shortly.

At Venice Mr. Howard determined to have the fullest information, by performing quarantine himself ; and he went from Smyrna to that city in a vessel which had a foul bill. This kind of Quixotism would have only been exceeded by suffering himself to catch the plague, in order to be a better judge of the feelings of those who experience that disorder. We call it Quixotism, for we do not perceive one single good effect resulting from it, except that the Venetians are prejudiced against white-liming the rooms of a lazaretto. That those who are confined in these close and dirty rooms may be subject to slow fevers, is ascertained from various parts of this work and many other observations. The particular officers
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and their different duties are well described ; but these might have been easily known, and do not appear to have been derived from the forty days confinement : the expurgation of goods seem to be conducted with great care and with great judgment. From all his enquiries, Mr. Howard seems to have constructed his rules for performing quarantine and building lazarettos, which he strongly recommends to the notice of government : a letter from some very respectable merchants and consuls at different ports of the Mediterranean is also introduced, in which the same plan is supported by much able argument. They think that the decline of the Turkey trade is owing to there being no lazarettos in England ; and that if these hospitals were constructed, cotton may be imported from the Levant directly, without the intervention of Holland, very advantageously, since the Turks would receive our manufactured goods in exchange ; and the advantage would be greater, as from the negligent method of performing quarantine in Holland, we are always in danger of importing the plague with our cotton.

The third section contains papers relative to the plague ; and consists of answers of several physicians conversant with the subject, to different questions : but such is the glorious uncertainty of medicine, that these gentlemen are inconsistent with each other, and with themselves. With the assistance of our medical associate, we shall extract the substance of the best founded observations. The plague appears to be communicated by the touch alone, not that to touch an infected person or object, infallibly gives the disease, for the contagion may be received and remain latent till it is discharged with the excrementitious fluids, or is called into action by the concurrence of some exciting cause : these exciting causes are constantly of the debilitating kind. It certainly is not communicated by the air, except the persons are very near to each other, for the contagion is not volatile unless combined with odoriferous bodies. The noxious distance is, according to Giovanelli, within five geometrical paces, and according to another physician, within two ells ; but this is subject necessarily to variation, as the wind blows to or from the infected object, or according to the degrees of infection. It is said to prevail most in hot seasons and in cold ; but Dr. Russel, if we mistake not, observes, that it often ceases during the hottest weather ; and M. Luigi supports this opinion. On the symptoms and the treatment we find many vague and trifling descriptions and remarks. Nothing can be drawn from these authors which we do not find more advantageously detailed in others. Convalescents do not generally relapse ; but on this subject

subject too, the doctors differ: it is better, we believe, to trust to the former opinion, that a relapse during the same epidemic is uncommon, though having had the disease is no security during a future epidemic. The plague from different places seems, by these authors' accounts, to differ at least in violence, and somewhat perhaps in symptoms. The proportion of deaths varies from two to five-sixths. From the mode of preservation, we cannot extract a single particular not generally known, that is to be depended on: these gentlemen say nothing of issues, or of keeping up the secretions undiminished.

Of the foreign prisons and hospitals our author's account is not always advantageous. The Hotel Dieu he found close and offensive; two were often in a bed, and the windows were carefully shut, while the curtains, put on in winter, were adorned with fringe, fitted to retain smells and infection. In the galleys at Toulon, he observes that there are about 1600 prisoners, distinguished by the colour of their caps according to the crimes they have committed.

Those galleys had only one deck. Many of their windows in the roofs were open; and being swept twice every day, they were clean and not offensive. The slaves also were kept clean, and their clothing was neat, even in that galley which is appropriated to the aged and infirm. Some of them had been confined forty, fifty, and even sixty years. All have a coat, waistcoat, trousers, two shirts, and a pair of shoes, given them every year; and a great coat every two years. They had good brown bread, well baked, in loaves weighing a pound and three quarters. All had some little allowance in money, and to those who worked, was granted an additional allowance of three sous every day for wine. In each galley there were two cantons (little rooms), one for wine for those who worked for government, the other for the sale of white bread, greens, &c.

Many worked at their own trades, as shoe makers, basket-makers, &c. but none were allowed to keep shops on shore as formerly at Marseilles; nor have they the same convenience they had then for the sale of their work. Forty were at work in La Place (the square) in the city, digging and removing the soil for the foundation of a house for the intendant. These were chained two and two, and when one wheeled the mould the other carried the chain; but in digging, sawing, and other stationary employments, both worked. Many were at work in the arsenal; and employed, some in moving, hewing, and sawing timber; and others in the cotton and thread manufactory. The number of those engaged in the last of these employments was about two hundred. They were lodged in an adjoining hall, and I observed that when they left off work, they

they were searched to prevent their secreting any of the materials. All were loaded with chains of some kind or other : those employed in the manufactory (and some others in the arsenal) had only a ring on one leg ; but this, and likewise the choice of irons, I found to be a distinction which might be purchased. The slaves who worked out of the arsenal were loaded with heavy chains, and few are able to escape : if any do escape, they are punished, when retaken, in various ways. — Some by a confinement under heavier irons—Some by a recommencement of the term of their confinement—Some by whipping, and such as had been condemned for life, by hanging.

* Protestants are not compelled to attend at mass. The last person who was confined for his religion was released about eight years ago. There is but one slave here who now professes himself a protestant, and his name is François Condè. He has been confined in the galleys forty-two years, for being concerned with some boys in a quarrel with a gentleman (who lost his gold-headed cane) in a private house in Paris. The boys were apprehended, and this Condè though only fourteen years of age, and lame of one arm, was condemned to the galleys for life. After four or five years he procured a Bible, and learned by himself to read ; and becoming, through close attention to the scriptures, convinced that his religion was antichristian, he publicly renounced it, and declared and defended his sentiments. Ever since he has continued a steady protestant, humble and modest, with a character irreproachable and exemplary, respected and esteemed by his officers and fellow prisoners. I brought away with me some musical pipes of his turning and tuning. He was in the galley appropriated to the infirm and aged ; and these, besides the usual allowance of bread, have an additional allowance from the king of nine sous (4½d.) a day.*

The hospitals of Italy are airy and convenient ; those of Malta, like their lazarettos, dirty and ill managed. The hospitals and prisons in Turkey are of different kinds, often well regulated ; but the hospitals of Constantinople are dirty and neglected. In Germany our author pursued the same object, and hospitals and prisons were his chief inducements : indeed it has been said that he has more than once passed St. Peter's at Rome, without deigning to glance at its inside.

* In the Great Prison at Vienna, in December 1786, I found very few of the dungeons empty : some had three prisoners in each dungeon ; and three horrid cells I saw crowded with twelve women. All the men live in total darkness, and are not permitted to make any savings from their daily allowance (of four creutzers, about 1½d.) for the purpose of procuring light. They are chained to the walls of their cells, though so strong, and

and so defended by double doors, as to render such a security needless. No priest or clergyman had been near them for eight or nine months; and this is reckoned, even by these criminals, so great a punishment, that they complained to me of it with tears, in the presence of their keepers.

‘I recollected a dungeon in which, at my former visit, I had seen a prisoner dying; and on mentioning this, one of the turnkeys said, “Yes, he died about a year ago;” which another confirmed. This, however, must have been a different person, for eight years had elapsed since my former visit.

‘The torture-room lies nine steps deeper than the dungeons; but I will say nothing of this room, nor of the instruments of torture, because the emperor has shewn his humanity and wisdom by abolishing this shocking practice.

‘All the prisoners in the old prison just mentioned, are to be soon removed into a prison lately built by the emperor. It consists of forty rooms, and also twenty dungeons at the depth of twenty-two steps below the surface of the ground, boarded with thick planks, in which are strong iron rings for the purpose of chaining the prisoners. These dungeons are larger, and in other respects (though horrid enough) less horrid than those in the old prison. They were empty, but above them were two hundred and fourteen criminals crowded into a few rooms. Their daily allowance is four creutzers, I was pleased to find here a set of rooms for trying the prisoners.

‘The hospital in the suburbs, called the General Hospital, is very large, and contains several courts. Most of the wards are seventeen feet high, sixty-one feet long, and twenty-seven broad, with opposite windows, and twenty beds in every ward, with vacancies between them three feet wide, in which tables were placed: some of the wards were much larger.—They were all furnished with basons, towels, &c. and great attention seemed to be paid to cleanliness. To each ward three nurses are assigned, and a room of a moderate size, with a fire-place for washing and other purposes. The roof has windows in it, but unhappily they are glazed, and consequently the free escape of the foul air is prevented, and much evil must be produced.

‘At the back of this hospital there are twelve neat rooms, with every thing in them proper for lying-in women—a bed—drawers with white child-bed linen—a toilet—tea things—and a bed for the nurse. These rooms are for those that pay one florin (2s. 3d.) a day. There are other rooms with five or six beds in each, for such as pay half a florin a day. The former advance at entrance the pay of eight days, and the latter the pay of four days. There are rooms also for those that pay ten creutzers (3¼d. nearly) a day. All in this department was clean, calm, and quiet. Women are admitted at any hour through a private door and passage, and no questions are asked at their coming in or going out.’

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The military hospital is not kept so clean, and is not so well regulated. The general hospital contained 813 persons, the lying-in hospital 111 women and 23 children, the lunatic hospital 251. There are various other benevolent institutions at Vienna, which are in general conducted with attention and humanity. The range of the thermometer observed from 1780 to 1786 was from 95° to -4° of Fahrenheit; its range in one year was from $90\frac{1}{4}$ to 0. The average is from 89° to 8 very nearly. In Holland the most important circumstances relate to the regulation of arrests for debt. An apartment in a private house cannot be entered, nor can a man be arrested on his own premises. While a wife is lying-in, a husband cannot be arrested; and any disturbance near the good woman's house would be severely punished. A board, with lace on it, is in such circumstances put over the door.

The prisons in Scotland meet generally with Mr. Howard's censure; and his remonstrance to the lord provost on the state of the Tolbooth is at once spirited and just. The prisons and the hospitals in Ireland are, with a few exceptions, managed very properly. The blue-coat hospital at Chester is warmly commended, and the rules of the Quakers institution at Ackworth, drawn up, we believe, by the late excellent Dr. Fothergill, one of the earliest promoters, and for some time the chief support of that valuable seminary, are transcribed, as far as they relate to the becoming demeanour and proper regulation of the boys.

In England, Mr. Howard again goes over his former tract, and mentions the improvements which have resulted from his former labours, as well as where his observations have been neglected or disregarded. His observations on the internal construction and the œconomy of the London hospitals are useful and instructive. His idea of a perfect hospital contains much (we suspect, very useless) refinement, but, as it is the refinement of Mr. Howard, we shall transcribe it.

‘The situation of an infirmary or hospital should be on elevated ground, near a stream of water, and out of a town.—The wards, if only one for each sex, to be from twenty-five to thirty feet high, arched, and without apartments over them; otherwise the building to consist of only two stories beside the cellars, and the area extended as far as necessary upon this plan, that the inconvenience of higher rooms may be avoided. The first floor raised four or five steps from the ground, and the ascent made easy to the entrance. The wards fifteen feet high to the ceilings, and distinct ones for medical and chirurgical patients. Two doors to each ward, one of them iron latticed, or canvas. Staircase of stone, spacious, convenient, and easy, as in Italy, Marseille;

Marseilles, Malta, &c. No room to contain more than eight beds. The windows lofty and opposite, or large circular apertures (as at Leeds infirmary) opening into passages not less than six feet wide: hasps and staples to the upper sashes to prevent their being shut at improper times: one of these windows should open from the ceiling to the floor, either as folding doors, or like those at Guy's hospital: a stone gallery for more readily opening and shutting the windows, as in the Italian hospitals. The ceilings lathed and plastered, and proper apertures in them. The fire-places in the middle of the longer side of the wards: the beds in spacious recesses, as at Toledo and Burgos; or to each bed a recess with curtains, as at Genoa, Savona, &c. The bedsteads, iron, painted, and with a screw that the backs may be easily raised or lowered: the beds on varnished boards or laths, with hair mattresses. In each ward a cistern, basin, and towel for the patients. Vaults on the outside of the wards, and water-closets as at Guy's hospital: for every improvement that may render such places less offensive, should be carefully adopted in all houses containing a number of inhabitants. Airy rooms and refectories for convalescent patients: one spare and unfurnished ward; each ward to be taken in succession, and called the spare ward. The kitchen, wash-house, brew-house, and bake-house out of the house: but if the kitchen be in the house, it should be lofty, as in Christ's hospital, (not under ground) and the entrance through the servants' hall. A convenient bath with an easy descent into it. A piazza and spacious walk to induce patients to take the air and exercise. The wards washed once a week, scraped and lime-whited at least once a year. (The machines at Northwich for supplying the salt mines with fresh air, being on a simple construction, would be of admirable use in hospitals, especially if situated in close and confined places.) The patients washed, at their admission, in the cold or warm bath, and to conform strictly to the rules of nicety and cleanliness.*

In our author's tour through England, many circumstances occur which require amendment. Constant ventilation from windows opening above * in infirmaries, as well as spacious passages; and in jails bathing, constant cleanliness, and the

* We are a little surprised that he has neglected mentioning the propriety of the windows being continued down to the floor. If M. Maret's observation of the specific gravity of infectious miasmata be disregarded, yet they are certainly of service in rendering the ventilation more complete. Our author's favoured architect, Mr. Blackburne, has, we believe, employed them, and seems to think that they succeed better when they are not directly opposite, but alternate. We are not certain that these low windows can be adopted so as to make the room sufficiently warm; perhaps smaller apertures, which may occasionally be opened and shut with accuracy, would be more useful. We would only add a hint, that in Mr. Howard's large vaulted wards, a triangular chimney in the middle, with three stoves, might be more useful than one fire-place on the longest side.

suppression

Suppression of taps are frequent subjects of our author's remarks. The low fever of jails, it is often observed, arises from confined air, indolence, and low spirits, independent of infection. Mr. Howard often finds reason to disapprove of insolvent acts, from his observations on the places of confinement for debtors, and snuff and tobacco which are often allowed by authority, are censured severely, and with great propriety, for they certainly have no particular influence in preventing infection in places where free ventilation is allowed.

The observations on the confinement in the hulks, and remarks on penitentiary houses, conclude the volume. The former are more healthy than those would expect who are prejudiced against damp situations; and the latter are dropped in favour of the 'ruinous and destructive scheme' of banishment to Botany Bay. We have always endeavoured to oppose it; but if Mr. Howard has been unsuccessful, no advantage can be reaped from our disapprobation. The observations on penitentiary houses, which would have been the object of a legislator not hurried away by partial views and the interested motives of individuals, are very valuable. Our author has not, probably, written in vain, since there must be a time, and that time is probably at no great distance, when the other plan will be universally reprobated. A bill to prevent any liquor being sold in jails would, we think, be highly salutary. The antiseptic quality of spirituous liquors cannot for a moment be insisted on; and if necessary to health, they may be occasionally allowed by the surgeon.

Tables of the number of prisoners at the period of our author's different tours, of the number of convicts ordered for transportation, of the number committed for capital crimes in Scotland, of fees due to the clerks of assize, of felons delivered from Newgate to be transported, with sir Theodore Janssen's table of condemnations, executions and pardons, with some similar ones, are subjoined. On the whole, the volume contains many facts of importance, and many observations of real utility. Its ornaments we have already mentioned, and we leave it with the best founded expectations that our author's past and future labours will not be wholly in vain.

The Poems of Ferdosi. Translated from the Persian. By Joseph Champion, Esq. Vol. I. 4to. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

FERDOSI, as appears from an essay on his life and writings prefixed, was a native of the kingdom of Khorasan, and patronised by Mahmoud the sultan of Ghezny, the Augustus of Asia, whose court was the seat of magnificence, arts, and sciences.

. Vol. LXVIII. July, 1789. C The

The historical annals of Persia, originally collected by command of Yezdegerd (we suppose the same monarch whom we call Isdegerdes), were preserved by an Abyssinian, when the royal palace at Ispahan was plundered by one of Omar's generals. They were rescued from the flames contrary to the mandate of that illustrious enemy of literature, who appears to have shewn as little mercy to the library of the Persian monarchs as to that of the Egyptians at Alexandria. The king of Abyssinia, to whom this historical collection was presented, ordered it to be translated into that language. It afterwards found its way into Hindostan, and from thence to Khorasan. The governor of that province sent an envoy to transcribe the original manuscript, which was chiefly written in the Peihlouvi language : the same we apprehend as that commonly known among the Persians by the name of the Pehlvi, now a dead language, but supposed to have been introduced by Kiumers, the first king of their first dynasty ; to have been spoken in the time of Zoroaster ; and in which different treatises composed by him are said still to exist. Many historians and poets (we fear that circumstance will not heighten its historical credit) ' were engaged in adding to, and embellishing this invaluable work.' Mahmoud, delighted with some poetical versions taken by his commands from different parts, was desirous that the whole should be translated and digested into a series of heroic poems.

Ferdosi felt a consciousness of being equal to the undertaking, and by the assistance of some friends, was supplied with those manuscripts that contained an account of the wars of Feredoon and Zohak. From these he formed a poem, which we suppose makes the fourth book of the present performance. Mahmoud heard of his fame, admired his talents, and shewed him particular marks of favour. This, as may be expected in a court, excited envy ; and Ferdosi, as usual, when art and malice combine against merit, fell a victim to it. His fall was immediately owing to an improper petulance, or generous resentment (the circumstances may be considered in either light) conceived at a supposed indignity offered to him. On the completion of his labours, 60000 silver dinars, in lieu of the same number of * gold ones, his stipulated payment, were delivered to him. The grand vizier, his enemy, had designedly made this mistake. The bard, who was bathing at the time he received the donation, enraged at the deception, ' gave immediately twenty thousand to the keeper of

* The dinar is about eight shillings and six pence, and he was promised a dinar for every line. In another place, however, we are told that the poem consisted of 100000 lines ; but admitting the former number, it more than doubles the Iliad and Odyssey united.

he bath, twenty thousand to a fruiterer who attended, and wenty thousand to the ſlave who delivered him the money. The poet conſoled himſelf with the laurels of immortality, and he has beautifully deſcribed his hope of paradise from the conſciouſneſs of a life well ſpent. "I wrote for fame," ſaid Ferdoſi to the ſlave, "not for the attainment of riches!" The ſlave repeated to the ſultan the whole ſtory.

The grand vizier had art ſufficient to divert the reſentment of Mahmoud, firſt excited againſt himſelf, on the bard: Mahmoud though,

——the Muſe's friend
himſelf a Muſe——

for he delivered an extempore poetical encomium on receiving Ferdoſi's 'pearls of eloquence,' ſtill retained the pride and ferocity of an Aſiatic deſpot. Any gift from him ought to be conſidered as an honour, and received with gratitude. 'The foot of the elephant, exclaimed the irritated prince, ſhall teach the refractory a leſſon of obedience.' Ferdoſi, by ſubmiſſion, ſomewhat ſoftened the monarch's reſentment, but truſted to flight for ſecurity. His poetical abilities acquired him new friends and patrons, more generous, at leaſt leſs capricious than Mahmoud; who, galled by his ſatirical invectives, ſometimes perſecuted him, and ſometimes, afraid of being 'damned to everlaſting fame,' ſolicited a reconciliation. The poet at length retired to his native city, and the 60000 dinars were ſent to him a few days after death had rendered the ſultan's favour or enmity indifferent. His daughter declined accepting them, and they were expended by Mahmoud's order in erecting a magnificent fabric to his honour. Thus, what would have rendered Ferdoſi happy during life, and have bound him by the ſtrongest ties of gratitude, was denied by a prince to whom the money was of no value, and whoſe earneſt deſire it was to be celebrated in his poems. Yet the ſame perſon, after having received inſtead of applauſe, the ſevereſt invectives from his indignant Muſe, expended them in a uſeleſs compliment to his memory. So inconſiſtent is man!

In this poetical hiſtory, though truth commonly appears to be much exaggerated, ſometimes veiled in allegory, and obſcured by metaphorical expreſſions, we apprehend that it exiſts in ſome form or other, however diſguiſed, and that a critical judge of the oriental mode of writing, well verſed in the traditional accounts and hiſtorical narratives of different kingdoms in Aſia, might elucidate many curious circumſtances, and point out many intereſting occurrences by means of thoſe annals. The Poems are dedicated to ſir William Jones, the moſt proper perſon, as a ſcholar and a poet, to have done juſtice to them.

Of the present work we cannot speak very favourably, though willing to grant every allowance for which the author pleads. He seems to have undertaken no easy task : to preserve the Persian manners and idiom, and make them appear to tolerable advantage in an English dress, required considerable abilities ; but it was not difficult to avoid such errors in grammar and prosody, such inaccuracies and absurd expressions as frequently occur in this performance. The translation, however, it must be allowed, displays occasionally marks of genius, and may be reckoned at least, on account of its subject, a literary acquisition. The following extract is no unfavourable specimen, and will give the reader a general idea of the wild and extravagant circumstances recorded in this poem. It relates to Zohak, who usurped the throne of Persia, and was the fifth monarch of the first dynasty. He is represented as the son of Merdas king of Arabia, remarkable for his virtues in early youth, and extremely desirous of acquiring knowledge. Ebles, the rebellious angel, appears to him as an ancient sage, and offers to render him superior in knowledge and power to the rest of mankind if he would swear to obey his injunctions.

‘Th’ unwary Zohak swore : deluded youth !
 To whom, unconscious, do you pledge your truth ?
 He swore that silence should the tale conceal !
 ’Twas then that Ebles broke the fatal seal :
 “ A son like you with ev’ry talent blest,
 With God-like virtues, in unwarlike rest,
 Thus doom’d, depriv’d of empire and of pow’r,
 To wait, unactive ! for an old man’s hour,
 Argues a grov’ling soul—while thy ag’d fire
 Lives glimm’ring on, suppress thy active fire—
 Long wilt he rule ; a slave thou must remain ;
 Seize on his sceptre, and assert thy reign.
 His throne is thine : obedient to thy guide,
 ‘The world will own thee with a conscious pride.’”
 Zohak attentive heard ; ambition, pow’r,
 Rag’d in his soul, and mark’d the chosen hour.
 A spark of virtue struggled in his heart—
 “ Adopt some mode, where nature will not start.”
 Ebles with sternness answered—“ Take his seat,
 Or perjury is thine shou’dst thou retreat.
 For perjury, with piety atone,
 Thus, thus ejected from a splendid throne ?
 For ages will your fire in triumph reign,
 And thou, inglorious, curse the pious strain !”
 Alarm’d, the youth assents—no fears appal—
 “ But how, or where ? the king’s belov’d by all !”—
 Be silent only, and the means are mine ;
 Great shalt thou be, and like yon sun shall shine.”

A well

A well was sunk, and covered in the night ;
A level plain it seem'd to mortal sight.
Merdaz each eve within the garden roves,
And bow'd before his god in sacred groves.
There lay the snare, alas ! design'd by hell ;
In it at eve the pious monarch fell,
Fearless of ill. For lions, though they rage,
Submissive wait upon a parent's age.
Zohak, whose soul was in th' infernal's power,
No fear or sorrow knew — " Let the fates low'r ;
The throne is mine." So ancient annals tell ;
And Ebles smil'd to view the pow'r of hell.
Th' infernal now a beauteous shape assum'd,
And words more gracious all his thoughts illum'd.
Each pow'r was granted him ; till then the earth
Yielded all food, and simple was its mirth.
No luxury it knew ; the fowl, the sheep,
With various birds, fish from the watry deep,
Were dress'd by Ebles for the wond'ring king ;
The winter, summer, autumn, and the spring,
Were ransack'd all to catch th' inglorious mind,
Whose senses were to luxury resign'd.
Zohak from Ebles, wond'ring, seeks to know
From whence such knowlege, such improvements flow ;
Whether of mortal or immortal race ?
" Say, what rewards can such achievements grace !"
To whom ; — " Oh monarch of Arabia's plain !
My schemes, my labours, shall not prove in vain.
Your kindness warms the slave of your desire ;
One sole request I crave — one only boon require ;
On thy immortal shoulders let me place
My faithful head, and bow my bending face."
Zohak, not conscious of impending ill,
Bids him his wishes and his boon fulfil ;
Ebles, the moment seiz'd with proud delight,
Touch'd either arm, and vanish'd from his sight.
Instant two serpents spring from either arm ;
All gaze all wonder, trembling with alarm ;
Erect they rose, and all around them view'd,
Their open mouths demand immediate food.
All skill'd in medicine, try their art in vain,
All herbs prove fruitless to relieve the pain.
Ebles, in habit of a seer unknown,
Appear'd, and thus address'd the royal throne :
With brains of men alone these serpents feed,
For this no herb, no med'cine is decreed.
This will destroy them." Hell cou'd no more ;
Th' infernal revell'd, pleas'd with human gore."

This story, at the first view, might lead the reader to conjecture that these historico-poetical annals of Persia have as little foundation in truth as the 'Persian Tales.' The present seems, indeed, almost a counterpart to that quoted in the Guardian (No. 148.) and entitled the *Santon Barfisa*. They both contain the same moral: that a good man once seduced from the paths of virtue, is led imperceptibly to commit the most horrid enormities. But whatever the *Santon* might be, Zohak was a real personage; and, according to less figurative and eccentric histories, he reigned about eight hundred years before the Christian era. His cruelty excited a revolt: a blacksmith, named Gao, headed the insurgents, slew the tyrant, and restored Feridoon, the right heir, to the throne. It is recorded as a fact, that the blacksmith's apron, which Gao displayed as his banner when marching against the usurper, was found by the Arabians in the treasury at Ispahan, richly ornamented with jewels, when they conquered Persia in 636. This must have been at the time when the original annals on which this work was composed, so narrowly escaped the destructive zeal of Zohak's countryman, the caliph Omar. With the account mentioned above, relative to the former, this poem, giving proper allowance for embellishment and exaggeration, perfectly agrees. A circumstance that from analogy naturally leads us to conjecture, as we before observed, that however wild and extravagant the occurrences here related may appear, yet when divested of their poetical ornaments, they will be found in general, faithful records of transactions in times but little known: on which account this work may be considered as of real value. The part of the *Shâh Nameh*, the only poem in this volume, is, according to Mr. Champion, the least interesting of the whole performance. Should health permit him to reassume the undertaking, 'the heroic poem which includes the achievements of Rustem Sohrab, and Isfendiar, will be the continuation of his next performance.' Rustem was the Persian Achilles, and equally celebrated in history and romance. He flourished in the beginning of the Kianian dynasty, or second race of Persian monarchs, which concludes in Iskender, or Alexander the Great.

'I propose (Mr. Champion adds) selecting the most animating allusions, the most splendid actions, and most beautiful passages from Ferdosi, without losing sight of the concatenation of events. The number of lines will be equal to the *Iliad* of Homer. This forms what may be called the second division of Ferdosi's heroic poems. With respect to the remaining part, it is impossible, so hazard, at this period, any decisive opinion.'

The Field Engineer ; or, Instructions upon every Branch of Field Fortification. (Concluded from Vol. LXVII. p. 330.)

THE second volume commences with observations on parapets, fleches, redoubts, star-forts, and other works ; and in this chapter, the author admits occasionally of the utility of hexagonal star-forts, particularly when designed to occupy heights. Têtes du pont, works of considerable importance, are explained at some length. Trous de loup, concealed holes into which the enemy may fall, now much disused ; crows-feet, instruments sharp-pointed, resembling the utensil commonly called a cat, scattered on the ground where cavalry are expected to attack ; and sturmbalken, heavy pieces of timber designed to roll down from a height to oppose an enemy who is ascending, next share the author's attention. Fougasses, a kind of mine, and abbatis, a mode of entrenchment well known, are the next subjects of examination. We shall extract our author's very humane observations, for humanity is not always uppermost in the mind of an engineer ; and M. Tielke, though by no means rash or cruel, talks frequently as a professional man in this respect.

‘ In time of war, no greater abuses are committed than by the unnecessary formation of abbatis.—As they cost the military nothing, the commanding officers of corps and detachments generally make use of them without the least scruple, as well for the defence of their own troops, as for the purpose of deceiving the enemy : especially when they are desirous of recommending themselves to the immediate notice of their sovereign, or the commander in chief of the army, as prudent and cautious officers. A soldier should be ready to make every effort, even at the expence of his own property, whenever the service of his country may make a demand of it ; but he should remember at the same time, that war is not carried on against the countrymen ; and it ought to be an invariable maxim with him, never to oppress them with wanton injury, even in an enemy's country. The destruction of wood is a great and permanent evil, and every benefit that can be derived from an abbatis, which we neither can, nor intend to maintain, are much too inconsiderable to justify it.—I have already endeavoured to prove that the defence of abbatis is difficult and precarious, and that no service whatever can result from them when unoccupied by troops. Consequently, whenever a general reposes much confidence in them, he will be the more embarrassed, and the probability of his defeat will be augmented.

‘ In the undermentioned cases abbatis may be of real use.

‘ 1st. When woods are included within the position of a corps.

‘ 2d. When you wish to put your advanced posts or other small bodies into a state of defence, or to prevent their being carried off, and,

‘ 3d. When you wish to retard the enemy’s march through hollow-ways, ravines, &c. or to make them impassable.’.

The construction of dams to occasion inundations, the means of keeping an enemy at a distance from them, and of forming a sluice which shall not be injured by cannon-shot, are explained with great precision. The method of retrenching heights, of defending an army by lines and retrenchments, of defending ground and buildings of every kind, are well elucidated.

The third and last part relates to ‘ taking up’ ground, in other words surveying and planning it. In this part of the work there are many circumstances of curiosity and of use, which the practical surveyor may occasionally employ with advantage; but perhaps on the whole, trifling circumstances of curiosity or ornament are too much insisted on.

These volumes will, we think, prove a valuable addition to the stock of English tactics: they are printed with great care and some splendor, and the plates, which are very numerous, greatly exceed those of the original.

The Partisan in War; or, the Use of a Corps of Light Troops in an Army. By Lieut. Col. A. Emmerich. 8vo. 3s. in Boards, Debrett.

THE duty of a partisan has often been considered as a severe but useful school for the more regular officer, and the commander in chief of future armies. It teaches fortitude, steadiness, a habit of finding ready resources, and a complete self-possession in the most alarming circumstances. Our late war in America, from the nature of the service, formed light troops and partisan officers in great numbers, and in no inconsiderable perfection. Lieutenant-colonel Emmerich served not only in America, but in the seven years German war. He was formed in the school of prince Ferdinand, and, indisputably the first general of the present moment, the duke of Brunswick; nor has he since tarnished the laurels which he then acquired. The present slight sketch, the outline of the partisan’s duty, furnishes ample proofs of his spirit, his ability, his address, and his honour. The partisan is not, as has been supposed, the allowed robber, the skulking freebooter, or the dishonourable spy. He conducts his band in secret, to distress the enemy in a manner to which force cannot be applied. In his sudden excursions he darts on an unprotected magazine, or a careless corps; but he neither

plunders

plunders the individual, feeds at the expence of the unprotected farmer, or oppresses those to whom he is not opposed in arms.

This little manual contains the clearest and the most useful rules for this kind of service; but it is not didactic only; the instructions are enlivened by examples, where our author introduces the attempts of others as well as his own; nor does he avoid mentioning his own mistakes, when any advantage can be drawn from them. As it is impossible to abridge rules, we shall extract a few short passages, as specimens of colonel Emmerich's judgment and spirit.

‘It is of the utmost consequence therefore to an army, that the person appointed to the command of a corps of light troops, should not only be an officer of approved good conduct, experience in service, and in whom the greatest confidence may safely be reposed, as, from the nature of his command, it may sometimes be found necessary, by the commander in chief, to entrust him with the paroles and counterfigns for several days together; the disclosure of which might be attended with fatal consequences to the whole army; but a partisan should also be a person of strong constitution and active mind, and capable of undergoing the greatest fatigue of both. Great caution is likewise necessary in the choice of the other officers of a light corps, who should be men of known sobriety, activity, fidelity, and hardy constitutions; such a corps being infinitely more exposed to laborious and difficult service, than any other troops whatever; more especially as they are never to be incumbered with tents; the security of an army depending chiefly upon the vigilance of the partisan.’

The following passage, for its singular propriety, we shall also select:

‘Men who are brave and zealous in their profession can effect, what to others would appear impossible, particularly if they are so lucky as to have a commander in chief, who is beloved by the army, and knows how to cherish and reward efforts of distinction and merit.

‘A partisan must not, on such expeditions, seek occasions of attacking or engaging with the enemy, but on the contrary, avoid them as much as he can; for it is not in his power to take any proper care of the wounded, on the stations which he must in general chuse, much less to convey them to the army; besides, that they are entirely foreign to the service required of him, which is not to operate with strength, but address in war. If a courier, however, passes his post, under an escort of the enemy's army, whom he cannot take without an attack, he must then, as a soldier, risk every thing, in the execution of his duty; but to expose men, because they are brave and volunteers in the service, rashly and wantonly, for plunder, or idle fame;

same, is disgraceful to an officer, and proves him unfit for his command.'

In our late war, however unfortunate the event, the partisan was of great service, and to col. Emmerich's detail of some few incidents, more might, we know, be easily added. The duty of the partisan officer was easy, from the similarity of language, and the uniform of light troops, which, for the sake of concealment in woods, is always necessarily green; and there is, we believe, more than one instance on record, where our troops arriving at a rebel magazine, or store, was not only mistaken for continental yagers, but were actually permitted to *relieve* the guard. The consequences were obvious; they were not allowed to mount guard again. On the whole, the history of a partisan war would be very interesting and entertaining. We shall conclude our article with one other extract, which is a kind of recapitulation of some of colonel Emmerich's various expeditions.

'The foregoing are a few of a great number of similar expeditions on which I was ordered, but forbear to detail, presuming that those I have mentioned, will be sufficient to give a proper idea of the nature of the service, upon which an officer, who acts in the same capacity, may be employed, and probably help him to acquit himself, in similar situations, with merit; particularly as in is not courage only, which is necessary, but a genius, fruitful in expedients and resources, address, perseverance, and precaution, must contribute to form a partisan. Experience alone, however, can render service easy. I found it very practicable to slip through the enemy's army, on the Lower Rhine, remain at any distance I found necessary in their rear, for three, four, and sometimes six weeks; traverse the country, make prisoners, destroy convoys and magazines of provisions, intercept couriers, and at last get round the flanks of the enemy, through Franconia, and join the allied army, after having happily accomplished every object of the service entrusted to me, without incurring any censure or reproaches on my conduct from the enemy. This sort of expedition I repeated eleven times in the space of two campaigns, from the beginning of the year 1761, until the peace in 1762.'

Remarks on the Internal Evidence of the Christian Religion. By Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Deighton.

EVERY attempt to vindicate the religion of Christ, in an age of scepticism and infidelity, demands our regard, especially when these arguments are taken from so unexceptionable a source as the Internal Evidence. Mr. Wakefield's Remarks are unconnected and miscellaneous. Among them we perceive some that are ingenious, and many that are new.

new. Novelty, however, did not so often meet our eye as we expected from the author's preface; and there are a few weak remarks which the Deist, if Deists were eager to make proselytes, might convert to their own advantage. In almost every page also we find comparisons, contrasts, and illustrations drawn from the profane authors of antiquity; but, in this part of the work, the allusions are often so distant, that these quotations rather illustrate the author's character as a scholar than the Christian system. We think too, in comparing the morality of antiquity with that of the Gospel, Mr. Wakefield has not acted fairly. He might have seen, in a late course of the Bampton Lectures, that the preacher, eager to raise the divinity of Christ, improperly lessens our estimation of the morality of the New Testament, and points out several coincidences in the dictates of ancient authors, with some of the purely benevolent and moral precepts of Christ. In this comparison too the ancient prayer, which comes so near to the spirit of one passage of the Lord's Prayer, 'not our will, but thine be done,' might have been mentioned. Perhaps a free translation may be more generally acceptable than the original.—'Give us, O Jupiter! those things which are beneficial to us, though we should neglect to ask them; and turn from us what would be injurious, even if we should be so blind and presumptuous as to request it.' We hazard these reflections with less apprehension, since we have more than once had occasion to make and to enforce the observation; that whatever occasional traces of piety, benevolence, and morality may occur in the heathen writers, they are neither so clear, so pointed, so full, so consistent, or illustrated by such an admirable practical comment, as the religion of Christ. When we contemplate this pure, this extensively applicable system, we must exclaim with the centurion,—'Surely this man is of God.'

It is necessary, in our progress, to perform an act of justice which escaped us at the time of writing our account of the Dissertation on the Message of John the Baptist, noticed in our LXVIth volume, p. 216. The interpretation is the same with that of Mr. Wakefield published some years since, in his Commentary on St. Matthew. Though we suspected at the time that it was not new, we were unable to recollect where we had seen it.

Of the different remarks we can give no very particular account; but shall select one or two, and point out a few of those which seem to us ingenious. The following passage is part of the remark on our Saviour's conduct to the woman taken in adultery.

'Yet

' Yet our Lord gave no sanction to adultery. The woman's guilt is clearly acknowledged, when leave is given to the *innocent* to put the law into execution against her. The inability of her adversaries to accept this condition does not prove, or imply *her* innocence in the judgment of our Saviour. The infidel can make out no just exception to his character upon this ground. Indeed, he expressly tells the woman to *go and sin no more*.

' But our antagonist will object; " he does not condemn her"—*Neither do I condemn thee*:—" And this," he will add, " amounts at least to an unpardonable connivance at her transgression." To this it may be replied in the first place, that *he came not*, according to his own declaration, *into the world to condemn the world*, and to execute the office of a judge: (and it is but reasonable to try him by his own principles; in which no inconsistency can be found.)—And in the next place, any exercise of judicial authority would have given a direct contradiction to that deference and subordination, which he constantly shewed, and inculcated, to the power of the civil magistrate.'

The remarks on self-commendation, occasioned by our Lord's saying, ' I am meek and lowly in heart,' as well as some other of his discourses, are interesting and just. The arguments to prove that Judas died of a dysentery, are laboured, erudite, and ingenious, rather than convincing. The arguments in favour of the simple, unadorned, and natural language of the apostles have great force, and those on the distinguished excellency of St. John's Gospel are important. We shall conclude our article with Mr. Wakefield's peculiar interpretation of a passage in this evangelist's Epistles; premising only, that it is connected with the event of the centurion piercing our Lord's side, out of which came blood and water; an appearance supposed by many commentators to be owing to the spear having penetrated the pericardium.

' *And there are three, which bear witness on the earth; the Breath, and the Water, and the Blood: and the end of these three is one.*

' The circumstance, which is proved by these three things in conjunction—the *Breath*—the *Water*—and the *Blood*—is the death of Christ. Our evangelist had said, that *Jesus gave up his Breath*. But we all know, that life is recoverable in many instances after respiration ceases. The *Breath* alone, therefore, would not bear effectual witness. But the concurrence of the *Water* and the *Blood* makes the testimony quite complete, and constitutes an undeniable demonstration of the cessation of existence.'

The Spiritual Body. Being an humble Attempt to remove the Charge of Absurdity from the Doctrine of the Resurrection, and thereby render it more the Object of a rational Faith; and a less Subject of Sneer to the Sceptics. 8vo. 1s. Buckland.

IN a late Number of our Journal we gave some account of a Discourse on the Resurrection, which was designed to disprove the opinion, that *the body which died* rose again. Our present author, in his great object, concurs with Philalethes, but differs in the means employed to attain it. He considers the spirit, or the soul, for they seem in his opinion synonymous, to be interwoven with the body, and in reality to be its essence. Matter, he thinks, receives its symmetry, its beauty, and its organization from the spirit conjoined to it; so that, though the material substance decay, the essential parts remain, without any change in appearance. If, for instance, a body received light from the sun, and this light remained after the body was removed into a dark room, the form, the appearance, and even the varied shades would remain; and we should see the body, though with respect to our sight the corporeal parts might be supposed no longer to exist. We see light only in the different varieties with which it was received. This is the case with phosphorescent bodies, and comes nearer to our author's idea than any other which occurs to us. That the body, however, consists only of animated particles of matter will probably not at once be admitted by physiologists; and divines will contend for a distinct principle, which, independent of the animation of the body, thinks, reasons, and judges; and in the end is accountable for the actions done in the body. To bring the subject within the reach of our comprehension, both these views seem to have been neglected; and it will require some farther attention to combine them with this system: but it will not be a very difficult task.

As our author considers the soul to be incorporated with the body in its minutest parts, and consequently to be able to assume the appearance of the body, he must suppose the doctrine of apparitions not to be very incredible. He does not risk so much as to contend that they are now to be seen; but, on securer grounds, thinks the impossibility of the fact cannot be proved; and as it is not inconsistent with reason, so it is supported by various testimonies, and by many parts of Scripture. These bodies are supposed to rise from the state of rest and tranquillity, which some have styled the sleep of the soul, previous to the day of judgment; though, in a subsequent part, the author, a little inconsistently, seems to op-

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pose the opinion (p. 38). What he has said of the nature of spirit is so just and proper that we wish to preserve it.

‘But modern philosophy having resolved every thing into matter, argues thus: having no medium by which to judge of spirit, and arguing only negatively, we conclude spirit is in every respect what matter is not: a very rash conclusion indeed. Suppose they had no possible means of acquainting themselves with a worm, and only hearing of such a reptile living in the earth, and crawling under our feet, and feeding on our dead carcases: if the conclusion in this case should be, that the worm must in every respect be what man is not, would not such a conclusion be false? as the worm has a sense of pain, a love of life, and some other properties in common with man. Thus might we rationally judge of spirit; although it is impossible to be acquainted with pure simple spirit unconnected with matter; yet, judging by the infinite variety and perfect coherence throughout all the works of God; considering the curious link which joins, or hair-breadth line which separates nature, so that it is scarcely discernible where vegetative life ends, and the animal begins; where the brute ends, and the human nature begins; or, perhaps, from a Newton to an angel, where the human powers stop, and the angelic begins. These things considered, why may we not conclude matter and spirit must somewhere divide in as nice a point? and where so likely as the spiritual body, which (as it belonged to this world) is most likely to be the very lowest degree of spirit, and having lent its aid to, and been incorporate with matter, will retain many of the same properties when separate from it.’

On the whole, this little pamphlet is written with candour and judgment. In a path so intricate it is easy to stray; and our author's system is entangled with so many difficulties, that while we give him full credit for its ingenuity, we can hardly even style it probable. In a few points his reasoning is perplexed and obscure: he will forgive us if we are mistaken, but we think we see him, on one or two occasions, endeavouring to impress the conviction which he does not sensibly feel.

A Dissertation on the Process of Nature in the filling up of Cavities, healing of Wounds, and restoring Parts which have been destroyed in the human Body; which obtained the Prize Medal, given by the Lyceum Medicum Londinense, for the Year 1779. By James Moore, Member of the Surgeon's Company of London. 4to. 3s. sewed. Printed for the Society.

THE society's question we shall first transcribe: ‘In what manner are cavities, whether formed by suppuration, wounds, or otherwise, filled up?—What are the appearances of

of their filling up properly?—In what manner is the new skin formed?—What are the symptoms of its forming properly?—In what cases, and in what manner are the parts, which were destroyed, restored? Of these questions the two first are examined together; the two second parts also form one head; and the last is considered in a distinct chapter. Mr. Moore's system is, in some respects, the fashionable one; but from it he occasionally deviates: his Dissertation is written with great neatness and propriety; but his opinions seem not always to be correct, or arguments just: yet, on the whole, it is an elegant and respectable performance.

The first step, in this mysterious and almost miraculous process of nature, is the natural and immediate consequence of the division of the vessels, the effusion of blood or of serum; the interstitial fluid, which Mr. Moore supposes is absorbed as fast as it is poured out. Of this, so far as our observation leads, there is some doubt: a glutinous matter, which consists of the coagulable part, once diffused in the serum, seems to be left, and even from the first this thinner fluid appears to form a layer on which the rest concretes. The subsequent fever certainly renders the effusion more copious and more glutinous; but this fever Mr. Moore supposes to be the primary symptom, and to occur previous to the inflammation. From every view that we can take of the subject, our conclusions are very different; but we shall select his arguments.

‘Many reasons could be given, if it were not improper here to enlarge upon this subject, to evince the impropriety of considering most of the symptoms of fever, as sympathetic with, or caused by the inflammation. I shall only mention in particular, that the fever is always antecedent to the inflammation; and it is impossible to suppose that an effect should precede its cause. Besides, it appears very improbable, that sympathy should in every instance of considerable inflammation produce a set of symptoms which are frequently dangerous, and sometimes fatal.

‘But the supposition that the fever is the cause, not the effect of the inflammation, is not embarrassed with the same difficulties. For when a solution of continuity of any of the parts of the body has occurred, it becomes requisite to unite this breach in the solids; the divided parts must therefore inflame; and in order to produce this inflammation, certain actions take place in the constitution. A spasm seizes the capillaries on the surface of the body, the contraction of the heart and vessels are increased and quickened, an unusual heat, and the other symptoms of fever follow. By these extraordinary constitutional actions, and by some local ones, inflammation is generated.’

We can find no instance of fever, so far as our recollection

carries us, without an object to be removed, by which it appears to be excited; for in what way can we suppose nature to be sensible of the necessity of her efforts, or of their proper direction, but by the pain and inflammation in some instances, and the influence of noxious matter in others? If then these exist previous to the fever, they are probably the cause of the fever. But Mr. Moore supposes that they do not; and in this he evidently confounds inflammation from an internal cause with the same affection from an external one; in the former, the fever is the first symptom; but in the latter, it cannot be contended that the fever is previous to the wound, and consequently to the pain.

Our author then explains the nature of adhesive inflammation very correctly, and separates this process from that of inoculation, which probably seldom or never takes place. Arteries, veins, as well as nerves, are formed, it is said, in this glutinous substance; and M. Fourcroy's observations on the nature of the fibrous part of the blood seem to give it support. Yet we would rather lean on our author's expression of its being a 'medium' for the new vessel to expand in, than on the system of the living principle of the blood, which we suspect to be a gratuitous hypothesis. Let us explain ourselves a little. From the first formation of the fœtus there seems to be no new organization: the whole process of nutrition appears to depend entirely on evolution. The newly animalised matter is deposited in the interstices of fibres, for these form the mould to direct the growth, and the rest of the bulk is made up of a cellular texture which is merely the inspissated gluten of the blood. In wounds healed by the first intention, the effused fluid forms, as we have said, the medium; and in this medium the extremities of the old vessel expand. We have much reason to suppose that the smallest arteries are in some degree serpentine, for those connected with the nervous sentient papillæ we know are capable of expanding; and there is no peculiar glandular structure, or any other variation in the organization of the subservient arteries to sensation. If then the small arteries expand they will soon meet so as to unite and fill up the space, while each artery returns the blood by its own vein. We know too that the extension of arteries is always accompanied by an increased sensibility of the attending nerves; and this increased sensibility in the nerves takes place in inflammations, where some new space is to be filled with a vascular structure. In wounds uniting by the adhesive inflammation, the space is small, and the expansion as well as the pain is very inconsiderable. Where the space is larger the inflammation is greater, more extensive, and a fluid, seemingly more favourable

able to the expansion is prepared, viz. pus. Inflammation is, therefore, as Mr. Moore supposes, constantly an attendant; but, when he opposes the common opinion, that a wound heals more readily by the first intention, when the inflammation is slight, he does not seem to comprehend its full force. To say that a wound heals more readily when there is no inflammation would be absurd; but a slight inflammation only is necessary to the healing by the first intention; and, when it is not increased by any additional cause, it is certainly more probable that the sides of the wound will unite by the adhesive inflammation. The whole difficulty depends on the term *slight*: a little inflammation is, we have said, necessary, but there may be too little, in which case no proper medium is afforded, or too much, when purulent matter is the consequence.

The appearance of the suppurative inflammation our author has described with equal accuracy; and, in this case, we think the same extension takes place in a greater degree, from a larger surface, where the extended arteries rise from the bottom, and meet from each side, with rather an unusual proportion of cellular substance. The bursting of abscesses is not fully explained by our author: we shall add a little to it, and correct in a point or two what we think he has mistaken.

The lymphatics absorb in general effused fluids, and parts separated from the living ones by the juxtaposition of additional nutriment: they appear to have no influence on living organised parts. When an abscess swells, it distends on that side where there is least resistance; and from its pressure it destroys the life and the organization of the parts compressed. These are uniformly absorbed, of whatever nature they may be. The tendons slough, the ligaments are gradually destroyed, and the bones become carious. On the surface, when the matter tends that way, the skin becomes thinner, and at last bursts. This aperture is commonly small: our author contends that it is large enough for the purpose, as it is effected by nature with the design of discharging the matter; not reflecting that nature is often blind, often in error, or at least mistakes the proper direction. The aperture is fixed to one spot from reasons which it would be impossible to enumerate, but which chiefly depend on the part affected, and the texture of the skin. The wound is usually small; but what is of more consequence, it is seldom in a depending direction to evacuate the matter completely; and it is almost always necessary to add to what nature has done, by a larger opening, but more frequently by one on the lower side.

The next object of Mr. Moore's attention is the formation
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of new skin, which he explains with great perspicuity and accuracy. The new skin resembles, however, in some degree, a condensed cellular substance rather than a true cutis. It has a cuticle and rete mucosum, but few vessels, no papillæ, or hairs.

The last part is on the organs, which after destruction have been restored; and on this subject our author makes some just distinctions, respecting organs essential to life, and those parts whose functions are less important. But the regeneration of nerves, with powers unchanged, is contradictory to the experiments of Fontana and Monro. The ambiguity probably arises from small nerves not connected in bundles, which escape division: so far as we can perceive, when the great nerves are divided, though the continuity is apparently restored, the nervous energy is very greatly impaired. The view of the late dispute on the continent, between those who contend for the complete and perfect restoration of parts, and those who wholly deny it, is sufficiently correct. As we have only once cursorily glanced at it, we shall transcribe what Mr. Moore has said on the subject.

‘ One party insists, that in wounds, abscesses, and ulcers, there is always a growth of flesh of the same nature with that which is divided or destroyed. If a muscle is cut through, or part of it destroyed, the new flesh, they assert, becomes muscular; if the same injury happens to a gland, the new substance becomes glandular; or if to a tendon, tendinous; and so on of all the different substances of which the body is composed.

‘ It would be happy for mankind if this constant restoration took place. And perhaps the opinion was at first admitted, from the tendency natural to men, of easily believing what they wish to be true.

‘ The other party is equally positive, that in wounds and ulcers there is no growth of new flesh of any kind or quality whatsoever. They insist that the cavities of sores are obliterated, not by new flesh arising from the bottom to the height of the skin, but by the parietes of the cavity shrinking to the depth of its bottom. And notwithstanding that they must often have been obliged in their practice to oppose the exuberant granulations by bandages and escharotics, yet nothing would compel them to swerve from their opinion, and to trust to their eyes. They exerted their ingenuity in proportion to the difficulties they had to encounter, and have displayed wonderful subtlety in attempting to prove, what one can hardly conceive they believed.

‘ It would certainly be very different from the usual processes of nature, to remedy the inconveniences resulting from the loss of an ounce of flesh, by causing the neighbouring parts to waste a quarter of a pound; but this is in effect what messieurs Fabre and

and Louis have asserted and endeavoured to prove, by long dissertations, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Surgery at Paris.'

The last section contains many new as well as interesting remarks; and, as we have freely pointed out faults, we can as freely add, that this dissertation deserves no inconsiderable commendation.

An Introduction to the Practice of Midwifery. By Thomas Denman, M. D. Volume the First. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Johnson.

WE have considered some part of this and the volume which is to succeed, in the former Numbers of our Journal (Crit. Rev. vol. LXIII. p. 49.) as they were published in detached portions; but we shall now examine our author's system as a whole, without repeating the former remarks. The publication seems to have been one of last year; but, either from its not being advertised, or some accident which we cannot explain, it has but lately come to our hands. Dr. Denman's character and merit induced us to peruse it immediately, and give the earliest account of it that was consistent with our other indispensable obligations.

As a system of midwifery the work must contain much in common with other systems; many parts where the author can add little to our knowledge; and others which no ingenuity can embellish. Our readers will, therefore, suppose that nothing which deserves attention is omitted; and that, while we step with little notice over many pages, the chasm is not in the volume but in our article; for, of a subject which cannot always be treated in a popular work with due decorum, it is not proper to extend the account beyond what the views of science and of utility may demand.

The introduction, which seems to have been wholly or in part an introductory lecture to our author's class, is a short and instructive history of medicine and surgery. In the last department midwifery is particularly considered. An extract from a manuscript-work by Dr. Percival Willoughby, who lived at Derby and afterwards in London, about the middle of the seventeenth century, is very curious, from the pointed apposite illustrations of different parts of the subject, and from the earnestness with which he recommends attention and delay. Dr. Chamberlain's secret instrument our author believes to have been the vectis; and Dr. Maubray, about 1723, seems to have been the first public lecturer in midwifery which Britain can boast. Our author's account is only

brought down to the year 1740: he seems to dread in a more recent history,

————— ignes
Suppositos cineri doloso—————

In the work, the first object which attracts our attention is the occasional separation of the bones of the pelvis. Dr. Denman thinks that some space may be gained by this separation, which probably takes place, in a few instances, to a certain degree. We have seen weakness and lameness after hard labours, which have been attributed to lacerations of the perineum, but which were probably owing to a little relaxation in the ligaments. The reunion is effected after some time; and, in one instance adduced, seems to have been delayed by a formation of pus: this was evacuated by the natural passages; but, in future cases, the event may not be so fortunate. It is, however, pleasing to reflect that this termination will not probably be frequent. We remember to have seen, in Dr. Hunter's collection, the cartilaginous connection of the symphysis of the pubis, with a cavity seemingly natural in the middle. This might allow some additional play of the bones, but would, we suspect, favour the formation of an abscess, and, as it had no duct, the abscess might destroy the cartilage and the bones. The separation which our author speaks of, he seems to think may be in some degree natural, or the effect of violent labours: the Sigaultian operation will probably be the subject of a future consideration.

The next part of this volume which engaged our attention was the author's remark on the retroversion of the uterus. We shall transcribe his observations respecting the cause.

* The suppression of urine has hitherto been supposed to be the consequence of the retroversion of the uterus, which has been ascribed to various accidental causes. But if we consider the manner in which these parts are connected, and examine the effect produced by the inflation of the bladder in the dead subject, so as to resemble the distention brought on by a suppression of urine in the living, we shall be convinced that the uterus must be elevated before it can be retroverted. Now, as there appears to be no cause, besides the distention of the bladder, capable of elevating, and at the same time projecting the fundus of the uterus backwards; and as such elevation and projection necessarily follow the distention of the bladder, it is more reasonable to conclude that the suppression of urine precedes the retroversion, if we do not allow it to be a cause without which the retroversion cannot exist. Moreover, if the uterus is in a state which permits it to be retroverted, when the bladder is much distended, a retroversion is a necessary consequence. If a woman, for instance, about the third month of

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her pregnancy, has a suppression of urine continuing for a certain time, we may be assured that the uterus is retroverted.'

But whatever may have been the cause, the cure must always begin by drawing off the water, for which Dr. Denman recommends a flexible male catheter, slowly introduced. The uterus will undoubtedly return, in consequence of its farther distension; and our author very sensibly concludes, that, though we could wish on the whole to be able always to reduce it at first, yet, if the operation be found troublesome and inconvenient, it is safer to wait for the process of nature, carefully guarding against the effects of the change of its situation.

The dropy of the perinæum is a disease which does not often occur, and has been scarcely ever mentioned. It is, however, only a symptom of ascites, where the water falls down on the inflected part of the peritonæum, which lies between the vagina and rectum. It often protrudes the vagina, and gives a suspicion of prolapsus uteri. Though formidable, if independent of pregnancy, we suspect it to be a favourable appearance; for the water has been discharged by tapping the tumor, and leaving a canula in the orifice. In this depending situation the ascites may be removed, and the vessels enabled to recover their tone gradually. A hernia between the uterus and rectum may also sometimes occur, when it will not be easy to ascertain the cause. If it be ascertained, perhaps only the more general remedies can be employed.

In the chapter which relates to conception, Dr. Denman traces the generation and growth in the three kingdoms of nature. In the mineral kingdom we begin to see now pretty clearly, that elective attraction is the remoter cause of union: that kind of polarity in different particles which seems to influence crystallization is the more immediate one, while gravity brings the minuter molecules thus formed within the sphere of attraction of cohesion. In other words, crystallization and juxtaposition are the principal causes of the forms and the increase of matter in general. But, when our author proceeds to his more general position, and tells us that, by 'the time required for the formation of matter under every individual modification, its continuance under such modification is regulated;' though we see it to be true in general, the exceptions are too numerous to enable us to derive any advantage from the law. The argument is perhaps less just: 'for, says he, if there had been no relation between the power of increase and the tendency to decay, the whole world, in a course of years, must have been composed of matter under one

peculiar form.' This, we think, can be only true if matter was capable of one modification of form, and no new body could arise from its altered parts. If in one form it decays faster than it grows; and in another, it grows more rapidly than it decays, which we perceive to be the case in many instances which occur to us, the result would be what we now see, independent of the general principle, which we believe, however, on the whole to be true. Of our author's illustration of the generation in the vegetable kingdom from seeds, we shall extract a part, premising only, that in the MS. of Dr. Willoughby before quoted, delay is recommended and illustrated by a similar allusion.

'A nut is contained in a foliaceous cup or husk, by which it is connected to the tree. The broad end of the nut is closely attached to the cup by small vessels, which, in the early state of the nut, are very numerous; but, as it advanceth towards maturity, these gradually wither away, till the few remaining ones becoming too feeble to support the nut, it drops to the ground. This may in one sense be called the birth of the nut, though it may with more propriety be likened to the separation of the impregnated ovum from the ovarium in viviparous animals, or to the expulsion of the egg in oviparous ones. When the nut is fallen to the ground, if the bed which receives it and other circumstances are favourable to germination, a new process begins, the shell, softening by the moisture absorbed by that end of the nut which before adhered to the cup, and which is more porous than the other parts. The whole internal surface of the shell is lined with a flocculent substance for the prevention of injury to the kernel from the hardness of the shell, and for the reserve and preparation of the moisture already absorbed. The kernel has also two membranes, the inner of which is fine and pellucid, but the outer is of a coarser texture, resembling that substance which lines the shell. On the internal surface of the broad end of the shell there is a congeries of vessels, or a ligament, which passes, between the kernel and shell, to the apex of the kernel to which it is attached, and probably serves the purpose of an umbilical cord. When the shell has continued in this situation for a certain time, it decays or bursts, and gives room for the expansion of the kernel. During this interval, the process of germination is going on in the kernel, which is not deprived of its coverings, so long as they are necessary for its protection. The corculum, or bud, begins to sprout; the outer membranes decay; and, together with a great part of the kernel, serve as the first supply of nourishment. Then the radicle and other parts of the little plant are unfolded; and when they have acquired a certain degree of strength, the kernel is divested of all its subservient parts, the root strikes into the ground, and the plant is perfected by the vigour of its own principle.'

So far as anatomy and physiology have elucidated this very mysterious and important process in the human species, Dr. Denman has followed the best and most rational systems. We are a little surprised, however, that he has not alluded to Bonnet and his system of pill-boxes (*emboitement*). So far as experiment can go, the *fœtus* is undoubtedly found in the mother; animated and perhaps nourished by the impregnating fluids; and, from analogy, we must suppose the process to be a similar one in the human species. Yet, when we survey the universe, and the myriads which inhabit earth, air, and water, we may be allowed for a moment to consider the subject in the abstract, and to look on vitality, as matter animated, whose form and appearance depend on the *nidus* in which it is deposited; and the organs by which it is conveyed; nor can confusion arise in the universe from this system, when we perceive in every step the regulations of an all-wise Creator, either impressed by fixed and unalterable properties on matter of different kinds, or, in some cases perhaps, silently and immediately influenced by his power: an awful consideration, which will lead the attentive mind from earth to heaven, and make a school of philosophy, as it ought to be, and as it is to the intelligent and reflecting enquirer, the best school of religion.

In the more particular physiological considerations, Dr. Denman's remarks are extremely just. The expulsive power of the uterus, however, he seems to perplex, by his explanations, and by looking farther for the solution than the phenomenon appears to require. The uterus is confessedly a hollow muscle, whose stimulus is an over-distension in proportion to the cavity which receives it. This gives a determined period to the time of gestation, and the usual sympathy brings, during its action, the abdominal muscles to conspire with it to the same end. Dr. Denman gives an instance, and we have seen more than one, where, from an ascites, the action of the uterus alone effected the delivery; nor, so far as we could observe, was it slower than in the healthy state.

In the diseases of pregnancy, if we were hypercritical, we might remark a little error, or what we suspect to be error, in the beginning. He properly defines irritability to be the disposition to act; but he calls the action, when produced, irritation. The action is, however, only the effect, and irritation is the exciting cause: the effect is manifested by restlessness and anxiety, or in the muscular system, where it is usually found, by irregular actions, spasms, and convulsions. The vomiting of pregnant women is, he thinks, excited by a matter to be evacuated; and, if the vomiting be repressed, should be discharged by stool. This advice cannot be inju-

rious, yet we do not think it well founded, for the matter brought up seems to be emulged from the glands by the straining, since it appears only after some urging*. When this action has been quieted by opium, we have not perceived the necessity of an increased evacuation by stool. To obviate costiveness, even in irritable states of the stomach, our author recommends salts; and we have frequently found them to remain when every thing else was rejected. Boerhaave, we believe, attributed an antiemetic power to salts, even to common salt, of which we once saw a striking instance. The state of the stomach, which produces a fangiful and capricious appetite, is very difficult of explanation. It is very certain that the eager desire after any particular food may be repressed with safety, though, when the fancy is within proper bounds, no man of tenderness and humanity would spare any trouble to gratify it. The connection between the mother and the fœtus is mysterious. It is a fact, we think well established, that there is no nervous connection; yet if in the maternal part of the placenta there is a separation of hurtful and improper parts of the mother's blood, a supposition highly probable, the agitation of her mind may injure this secretion, and, in this way, affect the child's general health; but that it can produce a spot on the skin of any determinate colour, break a bone, or deprive a child of the most minute part, is a supposition that every rational physiologist will revolt at. That the child can be infected with syphilis, or small-pox, except in the passage during delivery, Dr. Denman is unwilling to believe. We have seen instances so strong of both infections, that we must admit of the possibility; but this only happens when the blood is greatly loaded with venereal matter, or with the matter of small-pox, as we once had occasion to observe, at the moment of the retrocession of the pustules. It is an ingenious supposition of our author, that the opinion of women's longing was decidedly countenanced to secure them some additional tenderness at this important period in less civilised times. The following observation, for the comfort of the ladies in this disagreeable predicament, we shall transcribe.

‘At the latter part of the utero-gestation it is not uncommon for women to have an incontinence of urine, not perpetually, but occasionally, when they stand upright, or have any sudden though slight motion, especially if they have a troublesome cough. As far as either the stranguary or incontinence of urine depend upon the pressure of the enlarged uterus, it will

* A case at this moment occurs, which strongly supports Dr. Denman's supposition.

only be in our power to alleviate them: for the cause must remain till the time of delivery; and the peculiarity of the complaint may be owing to the compression being casually made either upon the neck or fundus of the bladder. It is some comfort for women to be informed, and I believe the observation is generally true, that affections of this kind are never produced, except in those cases in which the presentation of the child is natural.

Our author's explanation of a common observation may also give them some satisfaction. It has been remarked that if a pregnant woman has the small-pox, and, during the disease, should be in labour, though at the full time, she certainly dies: she dies, says he, not because she falls into labour; but she falls into labour because she is dying. This is strictly true; and if the disease is not dangerous, there is no danger from the complication of pregnancy: indeed there is no period of a woman's life when she is less in danger of dying than during pregnancy.

The volume concludes with our author's Essay on Natural Labour, in some parts corrected, and in others a little enlarged; but this we have already considered. On the whole, we think this a very valuable volume: it contains an accurate view of the science, whose bounds it occasionally extends, and whose obscurity it has often elucidated. We could have wished that Dr. Denman had sometimes been a little more explicit, and, in a few instances, more correct in his language; but many of these errors we believe to be typographical ones; and we ought to add, that we have discovered no mistakes that materially affect the sense.

Advice to the Female Sex in general, particularly those in a State of Pregnancy and Lying-in. To which is added, an Appendix, containing some Directions relative to the Management of Children, in the first Part of Life. By John Grigg, Practitioner in Midwifery. 8vo. 3s. 6d. in Boards. Robinsons.

MR. Grigg offers his assistance to the ladies with the delicate plausibility which engages their attention on subjects the most truly interesting. While a numerous race of inefficient or uninformed quacks crowd round the fair, we are not displeased, on the whole, that they will probably be superseded by a man of some experience and of some information: yet we own that we do not greatly approve of the attempt. It requires a strong mind and a sound judgment, to be able to see, unmoved, the various disagreeable accidents which may attend the situation in which we must be necessarily placed. Works of this

this kind, in the delicate minds of the timid female, may be very injurious; or, by inspiring a confidence that no other assistant except this volume is necessary, she may misapprehend the nature and the causes of her complaint, and misapply those remedies which are imprudently brought within her reach. If we examine the 'Advice' with these views, we shall find that Mr. Grigg has guarded with some care against the first, but has paid little attention to the last. The prospects held out are often cheering; and the inconveniencies concealed, as well as various misfortunes incident to the different states which he describes. The accidents in labour are spoken of slightly: the puerperal fever is scarcely considered with more attention, or as more dangerous than a common inflammatory one; while the dangers of a profluvium in the later months are scarcely hinted at. On the other hand, our author speaks with confidence of remedies which often fail: he scarcely ever hints, that peculiar management is frequently necessary under the eye of a more experienced practitioner; or at what the affrighted woman must do when she finds her valued formula has failed. The advantage resulting from his former caution renders the second part of his conduct still more inconvenient, for what is spoken of slightly, the woman, unless taught by dangerous experience, will not consider as of importance. What then must be the result? that every popular attempt in the medical line is inconvenient on every side, always improper, and most often dangerous.

If we consider the work itself, we must pronounce it to be plausibly and neatly written. The authorities are numerous, but not always well chosen; for some volumes are pretty largely copied which do not add to the value of the compilation; and some medicines seem to be introduced merely to bring forward particular names. Who, for instance, before Mr. Grigg, ever considered the mangel wurtzel as an emollient? The whole is extended, by a style more copious in words than we remember ever to have seen.

As Mr. Grigg depends much on Dr. Denman, Dr. Hamilton, and M. Puzos; we need not say that his observations are often valuable and useful. What relates to the more domestic management of labour we shall transcribe, for we wish to make it more generally known.

'According to the present improved state of midwifery, as soon as a woman is in actual labour, a few necessary friends attend her, and not before, neither does the accoucheur interfere with his assistance, unless the case absolutely requires it. Her dress, which is generally troublesome, is exchanged for another more convenient and lighter, and in which she may exercise

ercise her muscles with more ease and freedom. The door and even windows of her chamber, in the summer time, are kept open during the day, and in the winter, no more fire is allowed than may be sufficient to render her apartment agreeably warm. She is neither confined to her bed, until it is judged necessary, nor kept standing against her inclination, but is at liberty to walk about, and occasionally to sit or lie down.

'The mind is particularly attended to, and it is found to be of the greatest importance to soothe and divert it; during the intervals of pain, with prudent, rational, and encouraging conversation.'

'If, upon the intermission of pain, the patient is inclined to sleep, this is encouraged as useful in predisposing to labour, and if she falls into some refreshing, though perhaps short slumbers, she may happily forget what she has before suffered, and not anticipate the uneasy sensations she has yet to experience. To indulge so favourable a circumstance, especially if she has before undergone much fatigue, the room is ordered to be kept quiet, her friends are requested to withdraw, except such as may be useful, and a perfect silence is enjoined.

'During this seemingly inactive state, nature is very assiduous in disposing the parts to dilate, and bringing about those changes, which are necessary, in an almost imperceptible manner; as the aim which she endeavours to accomplish cannot be obtained without pain, so the rest of the patient is often thereby interrupted, and she not unfrequently finds every succeeding pain more considerable.

'If she is of a weak constitution, and inclined to faint, some mild nourishment is given, such as a little panada with wine, a basin of warm caudle, broth, or any thing else, that is proper for her; but, in general, the best restoratives are cool air and diluting liquors, especially where the faintness proceeds from long continued labour. Cordials of a spirituous kind are disapproved, unless the patient has been accustomed to them at other times, and appears very low, but if they have not the effect of increasing the pains, which is rarely the case, the repetition of them is seldom allowed, for, upon the advancement of labour, she acquires an increase of spirits and greater resolution.'

The practice of whispering while the patient lies seemingly asleep is very pernicious: it will rouse from light slumbers, and always gives suspicion, during the labour, of something apprehended. Nurses are frequently guilty of this fault, and we have known them talk to themselves for want of a companion to address their discourse to. The management of children is on the whole well described, but chiefly copied from some of the last and most valuable systems.

A Tour through Sweden, Swedish Lapland, Finland, and Denmark. In a Series of Letters. Illustrated with Engravings. By Matthew Confett, Esq. 4to. 10s. 6d. in Board. Goldsmith.

WE have many companions in a northern tour: in England, the sentimental Wraxal has led us to various scenes in the Baltic: the philosophical Maupertuis carried us, in pursuit of an important object, the mensuration of a degree of the meridian within the arctic circle, to Tornao, and enlivened his drier problems with some account of his adventures, and the customs of the inhabitants. Various missionaries, with the laudable design of promoting the knowledge of the Christian religion, have added to our acquaintance with the inhabitants of these dreary regions; and Linnæus, in his different itineraries, particularly in his *Flora Laponica*, has told us of the customs of the Laplanders, and of their nearest neighbours. Mr. Confett, with sir H. Liddell, engaged, in the summer of 1786, in an expedition to the northern kingdoms. There seems to be some mystery in their plan and their design, which it is not our business to examine; but they embarked at Shields on the 24th of May, returned there on the 17th of August following, ran in that interval to Sweden, and from Gottenburgh, at least 1600 miles, in a country where delay is unavoidable, and accommodations by no means frequent; so that they could not have found much time for the examination of particular objects. Added to this, we do not perceive that this party, from previous knowledge of what had been already done, or the experience of their predecessors, were instructed to turn their eyes to objects not already explored. In short, we must look on these remarks as the hasty observations of travellers, who staid not to examine, and who communicated the first impressions which they received with spirit and fidelity. If we meet with complaints and inconveniencies often in the foreground of the picture, we can assure the young eager traveller that he must acquire philosophy by habit, if nature has denied it, before he will be able to overlook or to forget them.

Our first attention, in this volume, was directed to the king of Sweden, an object of the first importance in the present political system of the North. From his general conduct, and his behaviour to Mr. Wraxal, *not* recorded in his journal, we considered him as able, intelligent, and enlightened. Mr. Confett seems to represent him as impetuous and inconsiderate. The event of the present war may furnish the solution of this difficulty; for, without knowing his founda-

tion

tion or his resources, it is not easy to form any opinion of the propriety of his conduct: we own that we suspect Mr. Consett's view to be the most accurate. The account of the diet of Sweden is short, simple, and correct; and the king appears by no means the absolute monarch which, he is represented to have made himself; nor do we see that his late conquest over the nobility will greatly extend his power, if the clergy and peasants have still authority to restrain inordinate and improper expences.

The country of Sweden, broken by mountains and beautified by lakes and fertile valleys, affords many romantic or pleasing prospects. Lapland, the place of this party's destination, even in their short summer, can scarcely be an interesting or an entertaining scene. We shall extract our author's short sketch—indeed all his pictures are sketches—of a Lapland family.

This consisted of an old man, his wife, a young man and his wife, with a very young child, probably about two months old. The infant was most curiously trussed up in a cradle, or machine, almost resembling a fiddle-case, made of the thick bark of a tree, so formed that it exactly contained the babe, who was fixed in it with a kind of bra's chain, made so portable and light that the mother might easily carry it in one hand. This cradle, which is also sometimes made of a hollow piece of timber like a small boat, the Lapland women, when they travel, tie with the child in it to their back. The child is not covered with bed clothes, but with a soft and fine moss, over which they lay the tender skin of a young rein-deer. When they rock the child they fasten the cradle with a rope to the top of the hut, and tossing it from one side to the other, lull the child asleep. This Lapland family invited us to their tent, and offered us their common and only fare, which consists of deer's milk, and cheese made of the same milk; occasionally they eat deer's flesh, but have no kind of bread. We presented them in return for their civilities with some wine, which they seemed to relish very much, but gave us to understand that brandy would have been more acceptable.

The Laplanders are a strong featured people, low in stature, but so constitutionally hard as to bear the severity of the most inclement season. These people are generally born in woods, and are frequently upon the snow, and wanderers from their birth to their life's end. Their huts are formed of pieces of timber, or rafters joined together, and covered with turf, or the branches or bark of pine-trees, so that architecture here may be said to appear in its first rudiments. Sometimes coarse cloth makes a part of the covering of their tents. In some places, we were told, that their houses were built upon the trunks of trees raised above the surface of the earth, or upon a
stone

stone foundation, to prevent, in those desolate regions, their being overwhelmed in the enormous drifts of snow, or devoured by wild beasts.*

The following fact is, we believe, wholly new.

'The low priced brandies are made from rye and ants, a species of insect very plentiful in this country. Upon enquiry I find, that "ants supply a resin, an oil, and an acid, which have been deemed of considerable service in the art of physic." The ant used upon these occasions is a remarkably large black insect, commonly found in small round hills at the bottom of the fir tree. It is less to be wondered that they should use these insects in their distilleries than that they should eat them and consider them as highly palatable and pleasant. As I was walking with a young gentleman in a wood near Gottenburg, I observed him sit down upon one of these living hills, which from the nature of its inhabitants I should rather have avoided, and begin with some degree of keenness to devour these insects, first nipping off their heads and wings. The flavour he declared was of the finest acid, rather resembling that of a lemon.'

'To fulfill a particular engagement*,' sir G. Liddel brought home two chearful innocent girls from Lapland, with five rein-deer. We hear with equal pleasure that the rein-deer thrive in England, and that the simple engaging maidens have returned, equally innocent and chearful, to their native woods and snows. On the whole, our author's accounts, though of a slight texture, are amusing, and some of his descriptions, though short, are interesting.

The Trifler. A new Periodical Miscellany. By Timothy Touchstone, of St. Peter's College, Westminster. 8vo. 7s. 6d. in Boards. Robinsons.

WHETHER the success of the *Microcosm* of Eton has induced the young inhabitants of the rival seminary of Westminster to try the force of their unfledged pinions; or whether some *young* author has put on the square cap to personate a Westminster student, is of little consequence to determine. Mr. Touchstone tells us that he is young; and we think that he is unexperienced in the ways of men, and in the walks of literature: indeed the *Trifler* is in many respects inferior to the *Microcosm*; and, as we once endeavoured to give a scale of merit by which these periodical essays were to be measured, we think that our author should be reduced to some of the lowest degrees.

* We have been informed that the journey was undertaken, and the girls brought to England, in consequence of a wager.

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The Trifler, like every author of this kind since the days of the inimitable and unimitated Spectator, offers us serious essays, characters, histories, adventures, and one eastern tale: philological discussions, grammatical errors, a little allegory, and numerous poems complete his bill of fare. We know not in which branch to praise him highly, or in which he sinks lowest. The whole is in one unvaried strain of mediocrity. The style is neat and correct, without animation and without point. The essays contain few thoughts for which it was necessary to dive beneath the surface of the subject; the characters are neither new nor well described; the histories and adventures are dull and improbable. As we know not then where to find particular merit, we shall extract a passage or two from the prose and from the poetry, that if we have erred in our judgment the author may be able to appeal to that of our readers. The following remarks on fashion are short, if not new.

‘Fashion is almost exposed to as many vicissitudes as the atmosphere; when a man is once enlisted under its banners, he solely devotes his time to the execution of its commands. Every other idea is banished, and his mental faculties (which in general are not strong) are racked in the invention of new fashions; literature, and every other intellectual improvement, are tasks too laborious, and beneath the consideration of a man of the world; such is the title assumed by these gilded butterflies.

‘The grand principle which induces them to adopt these grotesque whims, is to gain the attention of the fair. Arrayed in the magnificent display of fashionable levity, they injudiciously dangle after the fair, as an appendage to their equipage. If they understood the disposition of female minds, they would devote to internal improvement the time wasted in the absurd decoration of their persons. An extreme observance of fashion destroys the effect of their real external qualifications; although it calls the attention of their supposed admirers, it creates pity, and excites disgust in the eyes of females, whose powers, they falsely imagine, are incapable of discerning their ignorance and vanity.

‘These failings in general spring from an intellectual weakness, rather than a depravity of feeling. An inordinate passion to be admired, and the flattery of applause, easily extend their influence on men, whose minds are susceptible of the most trivial impression.’

The following little poetical attempt, said to be written by a correspondent, is, we think, one of the most pleasing pieces in the collection.

‘A VILLAGE FIRESIDE.

‘When nature pines beneath a hoary vest,
And winter frowns in rugged tempests dress,

When

When gentle streams no longer murmur flow,
 And frozen lakes their icy mirrors show,
 Then village rustics round the blazing hearth
 Consume the heavy hours in harmless mirth,
 And as they blithsome quaff the nuthrown ale,
 Each peasant tells his coarse unstudied tale;
 How many a ghost oft leaves his flinty bed,
 To bring down vengeance on the guilty head;
 How often village maids have been deceiv'd
 By perjur'd man, have listen'd and believ'd,
 Till sold for wealth, or sacrific'd to pride,
 Like fading lilies droop'd their heads and died,
 Whose ghosts oft shine amidst the shades of night,
 And gleam revengeful in their lover's sight:
 The peasant crowd, with reverential fear,
 Regard these tales, and tremble whilst they hear,
 In closer circles throng around the fire,
 And dread to hear, yet timidly desire;
 Each blast of wind, that murmurs o'er the heath,
 Swift fancy paints a messenger of death;
 And soon as night her dewy moisture sheds,
 The rustic crowd ascend their homely beds,
 With heated fancies and distemper'd heads. }

The following lines are in many respects beautiful; but
 the application is not very pointed or happy: the author
 surely needs not to be told also that the structure of a sonnet
 is very different.

SONNET.

* Say, lovely rose, since half-reveal'd
 My view thy beauty meets,
 Has dead of morning's black wind seal'd
 The fragrance of thy sweets?
 * Yet dearest to th' enamour'd sight
 'Till purple form appears,
 As blushing o'er the moss's height
 Thy cup its head uprears,
 * Trust—whilst thy outward leaves are shown,
 Our fancy paints the rest;
 Once seen, adieu,—(thy all is known)
 To fancy's flatt'ring test.
 * Such are the charms my fair one deck
 In person as in mind;
 Where half-seen heaves her swelling neck,
 Half-told, her sense I find.

Over

Oeuvres Posthumes de Frederic II. Roi de Prusse, en 15 Tomes.
8vo. Berlin. Vols et Fils, Decker et Fils.

Oeuvres Posthumes de Frederic II. Roi de Prusse. Tome I. Partie I. 8vo. 7s. in Boards. Robinsons.

The History of my own Times, Part I. Translated from the French, by Thomas Holcroft. 8vo. 7s. in Boards. Robinsons.

WE long since announced the proposed edition of the late king of Prussia's works, which was a little disgracefully supported by subscription, and with the mean arts of a professed book-maker extended to fifteen volumes, printed on very coarse paper. At this time, we must also mention the new edition reprinting in French, executed much better; and the first volume of a translation by Mr. Holcroft, from whom we are led to expect the succeeding volumes in their order. We take them up together, to prevent recurring to the same subject; but we mean chiefly to keep the original in our eye, and, though we may return occasionally to it, at the period of Mr. Holcroft's successive volumes, which we shall take the opportunity of announcing, and perhaps of examining, yet our quotations will seldom be taken from the English work, without some attention to the king's own expressions. What has been published before, we shall pass over cursorily: the Posthumous pieces, which now appear for the first time, we shall dwell upon with more pleasure, and our accounts will be extended to a greater length.

In the Berlin edition, 'the History of my own Period' fills the two first volumes, which Mr. Holcroft and the English editor have comprised in one. The 'History of the Seven Years War' is contained in the second and third; in the fourth are the Political Memoirs from the peace at Hubertsbourg, to the Partition of Poland, in 1775, the most important events, down to the year 1778, and the correspondence between the emperor, the empress-queen, and the king, on the subject of the succession of Bavaria, and the negotiation of Braunau. The sixth volume contains, both in prose and poetry, some miscellaneous works: the seventh, and nearly one half of the eighth, the king's later poetical attempts: the remaining part of the eighth is filled with letters to Mess. Jordaine and Voltaire. In the ninth and tenth the letters to Voltaire are continued; and in the eleventh and twelfth, fourteenth and fifteenth, is the correspondence with M. D'Alembert. In the thirteenth, are the letters of the Marquis D'Argens to the king.

In the introduction to 'The History of my own Period,' Frederick observes how little in history is to be depended on, except
Vol. LXVIII. July, 1789. E the

the outlines; and that, on this account, he is determined to record what he knew. He has chosen the calm dignity of *Cæsar* as his model; but it is *Cæsar* in an undress. The language is free, easy, and often familiar, yet the king seldom steps lower than he ought. The work is not to be tried by the historical code, for it approaches more nearly to what our neighbours call memoirs, or at least *memoires pour servir a l'histoire*; and, in this view it is excellent, for it is the work of a man who possessed the fullest information of a philosopher, capable of tracing facts to their source; of a general, from whom the plans originated, and to whom the most exact details were necessarily returned, since it was not very easy to deceive him: it may stand without disadvantage by the side of *Cæsar*, *Polybius*, and *Xenophon*.

The first chapter contains an account of the state of Prussia on the death of Frederick William; the character of the princes of Europe, of their ministers and generals; an abstract of their forces, their resources, and of their influence on the politics of Europe; the state of the sciences and the fine arts; the causes of the war carried on against the house of Austria. These details are short and comprehensive, interesting and entertaining. The king seizes those familiar circumstances which place the whole before our eyes, and instruct more than volumes of laboured details. We shall extract a few circumstances relating to the state of England at this period, about the year 1740.

‘Of all the nations of Europe, England was the most opulent: its commerce comprehended the whole world: its riches were immense; its resources almost inexhaustible; and with all these advantages, it did not obtain the rank among the European powers which seemed adapted to it.

‘George II. elector of Hanover, at that time governed England: he had some virtues, some genius, with passions extremely warm: firm in his resolutions; rather covetous than economical; capable of labour; impatient; violent, and brave; but governing England by the interests of his electorate, and too little master of himself to conduct a nation whose idol is its liberty.

‘This prince had sir Robert Walpole for his minister. He gained the king’s heart, by making retrenchments in the civil list, with which George added to his Hanoverian riches. Walpole managed the national spirit, by places and pensions, which he distributed properly, so as to gain majorities in parliament. His genius did not extend beyond England; and for the general affairs of Europe, he trusted to the wisdom of his brother Horace. One day, when some ladies pressed him to make a party at cards, he answered, “I give up play and Europe to

my brother." He knew nothing of politics, which gave room for his enemies to accuse him of having been bribed.

'Notwithstanding all the knowledge which Walpole had of the internal management of the kingdom, he undertook an important design, in which he failed: he wished to introduce a general excise. If this attempt had succeeded, the revenues which it would have produced, were sufficient to have rendered the king a despotic monarch. The nation felt it, and opposed it with violence. The members of parliament told the minister, that he payed the current price for ordinary follies, but that this was above all bribery. At the breaking up of parliament, Walpole was attacked; the mob seized his cloak, which he left seasonably, and was preserved by a captain of the guards, who, luckily for him, was in the tumult. The king was taught by this experiment to respect the liberty of England; the scheme was dropt, and his prudence re-established his dominion. These intestine disturbances hindered England from taking any share in the war of 1733; but soon afterwards the war with Spain broke out against the wishes of the court. The city merchants produced the ears of the English smugglers, which the Spaniards had cut off, to the house of commons. The bloody robe of Cæsar, which Anthony spread before the Roman people, did not cause a greater alarm at Rome than this sight produced in London. The passions were excited; war was tumultuously voted, and the minister was obliged to consent. The court gained by this war, only the removal of admiral Hadock, whose eloquence was more powerful in the house of commons than the bribes of Walpole; and the minister, who declared, that he knew the price of every Englishman, because there were not any whom he had not bargained for, or corrupted, saw that his guineas were not always prevalent against the force and evidence of reason.'

We have translated this passage in the negligent forcible style of the king; we shall add the remainder of the picture in the words of Mr. Holcroft, as a specimen of his manner, and because the translation is in this part particularly correct.

'England at that time had eighty ships of the four first rates, and fifty inferior vessels, with about thirty thousand land forces: her revenues in time of peace amounted to twenty-four millions of crowns, beside which she had immense resources in the purses of individuals, and the ease with which taxes might be levied on her opulent subjects. She granted subsidies to Denmark for the maintenance of six thousand men, and to Hesse for the like number, which, added to twenty-two thousand Hanoverians, furnished her with a body of thirty-four thousand men, at her disposal, in Germany. Wager and Ogle enjoyed the reputa-

tion of being her best admirals : the duke of Argyle and the earl Stair were the only persons who had any well-founded pretensions to head the military, though neither of them had ever commanded armies.

‘ Littleton was said to be the most vehement orator, lord Hardwick the best informed man, lord Chesterfield the most witty, and lord Carteret the most violent politician.

‘ Though the arts and sciences had taken root in the kingdom, their native mildness had not softened the ferocity of the national manners. The unfeeling character of the English required tragedies of blood: they perpetuated those combats of gladiators which are the disgrace of humanity. They produced the great Newton, but no painter, no sculptor, no good musician. Pope still flourished, and adorned poetry with those bold opinions with which he was supplied by Shaftesbury and Bolingbroke. Swift, whose parallel is no where to be found, was superior to his countrymen in taste, and signalized himself by refined criticisms on manners and customs. The city of London exceeded that of Paris in population by two hundred thousand souls. The inhabitants of the three kingdoms amounted to nearly eight millions. Scotland, then full of Jacobites, groaned under the English yoke; and the catholics of Ireland complained of the oppression in which they were held by the high church.’

The king’s reflections, on the state of the sciences and fine arts, we could have wished to have transcribed; but they would lead us too far, and are not perhaps at this moment particularly interesting.

The second chapter is introduced by the reasons for going to war with the queen of Hungary, after the death of Charles VI, and contains a description of the winter-campaign in Silesia. These reasons are curious. The great elector had lately erected the marquisate of Brandenburg into a kingdom; but the mild cautious conduct of Frederick-William was calculated to lay the foundation of an empire rather than to risk prematurely what had been acquired. He prepared for war; but his caution in his later years was so conspicuous, and so pointed, that his apparent strength was considered only as a brilliant weakness; he was neglected, despised, and insulted. The king had the national character to support; his own mind wanted a larger scope for the exertion of his various talents. His army was ready to act, his exchequer full; and perhaps his ambition of raising his own credit determined him at last to declare war against Maria-Theresa. It is remarkable that the justification of this measure, which we mentioned in our account of the Abbe Denina’s Life of the King, occurs in these memoirs only in a letter from cardinal Fleury, as applied to the conduct of France; and

and the vivacity of his character, which the biographer mentions as a cause of the war, seemingly from these Memoirs, evaporates in the work before us into perhaps a wish of raising his own credit*. Let us transcribe the little conversations with the marquis de Botta, the imperial ambassador, sent ostensibly to congratulate the king on his accession, but really to discover the cause of his warlike preparations. These strokes of finesse are to be had only from the real authors.

‘The marquis, acute and penetrating, perceived at once the object in view; and, after having made, on the day of his audience, the usual compliments, he expatiated on the inconvenience of the journey which he had taken, and dwelt a little on the bad roads in Silesia, which the inundation had broken so much, that they were nearly impassable. The king seemed not to comprehend his design, but answered, the worst that could happen then to those who came that way was, that they would be dirty travellers.

‘Before the king went to join the army, he gave audience again to the marquis, to whom he said what the count de Gotter was directed to declare at Vienna. Botta exclaimed, you are going, sir, to ruin the house of Austria, and to destroy yourself at the same time. It depends only on the empress-queen, replied Frederick, to accept of my offers. This made the marquis reflect a little; but he soon recollected himself, and replying with an ironical air and tone, said, sir, your troops are fine, I allow: ours have not the same appearance; but they have seen service: I beseech you to reflect on what you are going to undertake. The king was impatient, and replied with spirit, ‘You find my troops fine in their appearance, I shall make you confess that they are good.’

The third chapter (we are sorry that we must pass on so rapidly) contains the campaign of 1741, negotiations for peace, the submission of Breslaw, and the king’s return to Berlin. The campaign was a singular one: the battle of Molwitz was the school of the Prussian army, for the king observes, that marshal Schwerin was the only officer of knowledge and experience in the field on that day. He gives a full account of the faults of his antagonist marshal Neuperg, as well as his own; but he conceals what his biographer Denina has allowed, that he ran away, and waited the event at a distance. The only passage, that comes near to the event which the Abbe records, is the following: ‘The king, who thought he could rally the cavalry

* We have been informed that the ‘vivacity of his character’ was expunged by Voltaire, to whose correction the MS. was submitted.

as easily as he could check a pack of hounds, was hurried away in their confused retreat to the centre of the army, where he found means of rallying a few squadrons, which he led to the right.'

At this time, the distress of the empress-queen, from the other political events of the year, and the victories of the king, was very great. France and Bavaria were arming against her; Silesia was lost; and the impending calamities were worse than the real ones. The empress-dowager wrote to solicit the friendship of prince Ferdinand; she offered all that the king asked; and even called her enemies perfidious, and unbelievers in God: such was the system then at Vienna.

The fourth chapter contains 'political reasons for the truce; the war of the French and Bavarians in Bohemia; an account of the declaration of Spain against Austria; the diet of the empire; revolution in Russia, and various negotiations.' The information contained in the first part of this chapter is new and curious. Politicians have always been surprised at the truce which the king concluded in the full career of victory; but he tells us himself the reasons. His object was to gain Silesia: the French looked farther, and thought of dividing the dominions of the empress into four separate kingdoms so equal as to balance each other, and each so weak, that she could be at all times the umpire between them. The king would therefore be surrounded with rivals, add little to his own kingdom, and be subjected to France. The truce he could observe or break at pleasure, since its continuance was to depend on the court of Vienna keeping the secret, which at that time he knew was very unlikely; and, in this interval, the empress could with more effect oppose France. The scheme was deep, well laid, and completely successful. The conduct of the diet, and the secret springs which actuated Fleury in signing the treaty of neutrality with England, are extremely curious; but we cannot enlarge on every subject.

The fifth chapter contains various military details, in Bohemia and Moravia, with negotiations which rendered a battle necessary to bring the Austrians to some determination. All these events show the ability and the address of the king; the battle which followed displayed his military improvements. Yet there were faults discovered; and the king looks back, with great coolness and impartiality to examine and point out defects on either side. It terminated, however, in the peace of Breslaw, and in the king's obtaining undisputed possession of Upper and Lower Silesia.

The last chapter of the first volume in the Berlin edition, is employed in detailing the consequences of the peace to the Prussians,

Prussians, and the conduct of the other powers. To Fleury, whose favourite scheme of partition the king's separate peace had destroyed, he made apologies which at once displayed the refined politician, and an intimate knowledge of the human heart. The cardinal could not in his answer conceal his regret, or his distrust of the king's professions. The allies carried on the war; and when marshal Maillebois was sent into Bohemia, the court of Vienna parried the blow, amused the cardinal by negotiations, and procured positive orders to be sent to the marshal not to risk a battle. The king says, that he knows this with certainty. In other respects, what Frederick could not effect by arms, he attempted by negotiation; and the year passed away in these plans, which sometimes failed of success, and at others succeeded: but he did not neglect the best part of a king's duty, repairing by the arts of peace, the ravages of war, and adding to the prosperity, probably the happiness of his people.

We have been led by our partiality to this work, into details too extensive for our limits. We must now beg leave to stop; and, as it would be unfair to arraign the translator's general conduct by the specimen of one volume, we shall defer our remarks on it for the present. We hope to resume the work in our next, and to step on a little more rapidly in future.

[To be continued.]

A Survey of the Modern State of the Church of Rome. With additional Observations on the Doctrine of the Pope's Supremacy. By William Hales, D. D. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Faulder.

THIS is a very animated and candid appeal to the unbiassed judgment and to the reason of every considerate reader, by an able advocate of the Protestant religion. We are, however, sorry to observe that Dr. Hales, while he endeavoured to paint the tenets of the Popish church in their truest, though at the same time in the most disgusting colours, has forgotten the ends which he proposed to himself, and by being too prolix on what might have been treated with more conciseness and fidelity, he has almost induced us to say, in the words of a canon which he quotes, *Qui alios, cum potest, ab errore non revocat, seipsum errare demonstrat*. The present age is too enlightened to peruse with pleasure the labours of controversialists: the ponderous volumes, which were read with avidity in remoter periods, when nations drew the sword against infidels, are now suffered to moulder away in libraries, and the polemical writer has the mortification to find his readers as few as he knows the field of his arguments is barren and unproductive.

The writer of this Survey attacks with proper indignation Dr. Butler, Mr. O'Leary, &c. whose writings in favour of the Popish religion seem to have deluded many of the Irish who are devoid of judgment to determine and of resolution to pursue. The catechism of the former of these gentlemen Dr. Hales considers, and we think very properly, not only as subversive of the pure doctrine of the gospel, but of every moral duty; and the rapid sale which this little composition has had seems to kindle a proper resentment in the bosom of our author, who, as a minister of the Protestant church, and as a subject of his majesty, is conscious that Popery in Ireland serves to separate many useful members from promoting the interests of the sister kingdom. The many and too often tedious instances which Dr. Hales has produced to expose the tyranny of God's vicegerent on earth, as the pope styles himself, will serve to prove that they surely could never breathe the spirit of true religion who countenanced the cruelties of the inquisition, and shed more blood than the massacres of Mithridates, or the slaughter which accompanied a Saracen army. The cruelties of a Ximenes, the thousands that were coolly consigned to the flames in France, and the 50,000 who were hanged by the order of Charles the Fifth, are sufficient instances of this.—In the 180th page of the Survey the curious reader will be informed of what, perhaps, few could believe; yet let him not be too much astonished to hear that public offices are established in the Spanish dominions, where the indulgences granted by the pope are obtained with mercantile commodities, and produce his Catholic majesty a revenue of more than 80,000 pounds sterling per annum. Upon the whole, we cannot but wish success to Dr. Hales in his controversy; usurpation is ever disgusting, and more so when power is abused to mislead the ignorant, to spread the flame of rebellion, and to confuse and misinterpret the plain self-evident truths of the gospel.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Kongl Vertenskaps Academiens Nya Hadlingar. Tom. VIII.

*New Transactions of the Royal Swedish Academy, Tom. VIII.
8vo. Halmæ.*

WE must labour to overtake the Transactions of this Society, and shall not therefore detain our readers by any introduction or any apology.

The first trimestre contains some remarks by M. Morveau, on the nature of steel, and its component parts. The experiments, which he made on this subject, were published in the
Dijon

Dijon Transactions for the year 1785, and the result was shortly given, in our LXVth Vol. p. 552. In this paper, he draws some corollaries, from his trials, which illustrate the nature of steel. The sum of these we shall now subjoin. Steel he thinks is only iron approaching more near to that metal in a malleable state, in proportion as its martial earth is more free from heterogeneous particles, and if not perfectly, yet more equally metallic than crude iron. It is however, distinguished from iron, because a considerable proportion of plumbago enters into its composition. In its mephitic sulphur, it approaches nearer to crude than to malleable iron; the grey crude iron contains, in his opinion, more sulphur than steel; but steel is still farther distant from the white crude iron, which contains earthy particles, not metallic, but heterogeneous, and which may be separated, by repeated fusion in close vessels, without addition. Crude iron may, he supposes, be reduced to the nature of steel by purifying the iron, and separating the molybdena in it; while the transition of iron into steel is greatly promoted by the plumbago; and the heat required is at first only necessary to preserve the fluidity, that the union may be more perfect; but afterwards he seems to think, that some of the fire is combined with the steel. The general properties of steel depend on a determined quantity of its own material, and the different species from its different proportion. He observes with Bergman, that in this investigation, it is proper to begin with malleable iron, since this is the purest state of the metal and not with steel, as many chemists have done.

M. Petr. Jaoccejlm subjoins many attempts of the Swedes on this subject; but much remains to be done.

M. Olaus ab Acrel relates a curious case of incarcerated hernia, where his success was complete, though, for a long time, the excrements came from the wound.

M. A. Chapman, in the fourth article, points out a method of finding the centre of gravity of a ship, swimming in the water. And Mess. Falk and Lidtgren give the result of their observations on an eclipse of the moon, the third of January 1786. In the seventh article we find M. Lindtquist's observations on the transit of Mercury over the Sun, May 4th. 1786.

M. Olaus Swartz next describes twelve species of urtica, which he has discovered, and four of the most curious plants are engraved. They are found in Hispaniola, Domingo, Jamaica, &c. In the ninth article there is a curious description of a *woody lake*, by M. Haggren, whose curious remarks have, on more than one occasion, embellished our Journal. This lake is covered with the roots of trees; and he suspects with great reason, that it was formerly a wood over which the waters have flowed, or which, as is more probable, may have sunk in consequence of some subterraneous convulsion. The last article in this part is by M. Morian, who humbly condescends to describe

describe the method of making the blue paper with which sugar-loaves are covered.

In the second trimestre M. Moller publishes the chemical analysis of the residuum of fishes and whales, which is separated when the oil is boiled in water. The contents of this substance, as it is obtained from different bodies, must necessarily be different. Our author, however, found that it contains a volatile alkali and an animal oil; that the caput mortuum consists of charcoal and a calcareous earth. It may be employed as fuel, or to procure sal ammoniac.

M. Peter Adr. Gadd examines how far insects, worms, and zoophytes contribute to the generation of stones. Their effects in this way are owing, he thinks, to their mucilage, for they are frequently mucilaginous, and to the phlogiston separated from them during their putrefaction, which contributes to the concretion of the earths. This solution is a little fanciful: it would have come nearer to the purpose if he had said, which he might have done with truth, that insects contain earth, and that on the decomposition of the principles of their bodies it becomes evident.

M. Landerbeck, in the third article, considers some kinds of curves which may be produced from each other by the assistance of tangents.

Many have been the new species or the varieties of the Peruvian bark lately discovered in the American islands. In the Foreign Intelligence of our Supplement, we mentioned a species peculiar to Guadeloupe and Martinico. Another has been described and engraved by Dr. Swartz in the volume before us, which he found on the banks of the rivers in the island of St. Domingo, in the year 1784. He calls it *cincona augustifolia foliis lanceolatis, pubescentibus, floribus panicularis*. From his pharmaceutical trials, he has discovered that the bark of this tree is more soluble, and its active powers more easily extracted, than those of the common bark, while it is equal to the common in its powers, particularly when fresh. In the few instances where it has been exhibited, the effects seemed to be very good.

M. Thunberg, in the fifth article, describes and delineates three lizards from the eastern extremity of India. The trivial names are *lacerta Japonica*, *lateralis*, and *abdominalis*.

M. Peter Hjelm recommends, in the room of borax, to the assayers, a mixture of fluor spar and calcareous earth, with a little clay, that it may not run through the vessels. It is not only cheaper he says, but produces the same effects in a shorter time.

M. Andrew Wählin describes, in the subsequent memoir, a morbid conformation of the œsophagus. It happened to a soldier, who for many years found his deglutition troublesome, without being conscious of any cause for it. He was brought to the hospital in January 1787, much emaciated, not able to swallow the least solid food, scarcely the smallest portion of liquid, which seemed to reach some obstacle seated in the chest,
and

and was then immediately rejected, accompanied by much mucus. About the middle of February the œsophagus was so much obstructed, that not even a drop of water would pass, but every thing which he attempted to swallow, returned with a mucous discharge. He was released from this pain on the 12th of March. On dissection, the œsophagus, from where it passes through the diaphragm, was found in almost its whole length greatly contracted and enlarged again towards the fauces. On passing a probe, the obstruction appeared very short. On dissecting it, the passage was found to be totally obstructed by a congeries of transverse, pale fibres, resembling polypous concretions. The neighbouring parts were entirely natural, so that no explanation could be assigned for the appearance, except a constitutional conformation, increased perhaps by spasms.

In the eighth article, M. Colliander describes a poor unfortunate boy of seventeen, who, on account of a great deformity in the genita's, was thought to be an hermaphrodite. M. Samuel Fahlberg has communicated meteorological observations made in the island of St. Bartholomew, as well as the diseases and remedies most frequently found and employed there. This part concludes with the observations of Mess. Nicander, Lindtquist, Lidtgren, and Falk, on the eclipse of the sun, which happened the 15th of June 1787.

The third trimestre begins with some curious experiments by M. Zacharias Nordmark, made with a design of trying whether the heating power of the sun existed also in the coloured rays separated by a prism. He threw the coloured rays on the bulbs of different thermometers, and found always some expansion of the mercury, though it was small. It amounted to about half of a Swedish degree, scarcely a degree of Fahrenheit; but we do not perceive that the different colours produced different heats. He looked at the flame of sulphur also through a prism, and found that it was separated into the prismatic colours. He shows also how the light of a candle may be made to exhibit the different colours, but this was explained in a German work, so long since as the year 1743, by M. Christian Haupt.

In the second memoir M. Thunberg describes three new tortoises. The first, the *testudo Japonica*, pedibus pinniformibus, uni unguatis, testa carinata, crenata, pollice quadriloba. The second, *t. rostrata*, pedibus palmatis, testa integrâ carinata, elevato striatâ, scabrâ. The third, *t. arcolata*, pedibus digitatis, testa gibbosâ, scutellis elevatis subquadrangulis, striatis, medio depressis scabris.

M. Nichol. Swederus describes a new genus of insects, and fifty species of insects, from the collections which he saw at London. The new genus should, he thinks, be placed near the *cimex* of Linnæus, and is styled *macrocephalus*. He has described only twenty-five species of the insects in this number, and added engravings of the *macrocephalus*, and some of the species, as well as of tortoises described in the former memoir.

M. Eric

M. Eric Gustavus Adlerberg has communicated some observations on the uro galli. He brought up a young male, which uttered through the whole year the peculiar sound (psalzen) which the wild bird uses only during the pairing season, and occasionally in autumn. The same bird when he screams in this way, turns his eyes upward, and distinguishes only what is over his head. When other birds do the same, they are commonly supposed to be insensible to every object, because they do not see the fowler in his approach. When females were brought to this bird, they laid eggs but refused to sit on them, which is not uncommon, for wild birds can seldom be induced to perform this office while in captivity. The eggs were put under a hen, but when there was no appearance of young after thirty days, our author broke the eggs and found the young ones dead: the shells were very thick, and the beaks of the chicken were probably unable to break them, which the mother's instinct would have suggested to her the necessity of doing. This advice our author gives those who may wish to rear young ones of this species.

M. Arvid Faxe has made some experiments on the Carlscroon waters. The city is built on rocks and islands. When wells are dug, unless a rock intervenes, below the level of the sea, salt water is found which has percolated from it. The other wells are really reservoirs, into which the water running from higher ground is collected, but in no very pure state, and in summer foetid. This fluid is used for the common people, since the supply of purer water is not more than sufficient for the opulent. To it are attributed the dysenteries and putrid fevers by no means uncommon among the lower classes, for when frequent or continued rain dilutes the impurities, the epidemics cease. There is a vast concourse of naval people who resort to Carlscroon in the summer; and these, on their return, spread the epidemic diseases through Sweden, so that a supply of purer water is an object of very general national concern.

M. A. H. Florman, professor in the university of Lunden (Londini Scaniæ) describes the disease, with which, in July and August 1786, the oxen, horses, and swine were affected: Tumors arose in the neck, belly, and thighs, which contained a yellowish viscid lymph, and after death, was of a deep yellow mixed with sphacelated flesh. He applied setons, and an ointment containing powder of cantharides. With a few exceptions, a similar disease prevailed in the neighbourhood of Leipsic, described by Glafer and Wagner, in 1780.

The altitude of the apex of the Norway Alps, called Oreskut, above the lake of Jemland, M. Tornsten found, by geometrical calculations, to be 2040 ells. If, as Mr. Ricard contends, 117 ells of Stockholm are equal to 100 of Amsterdam, and 58½ of England, the Swedish ell must be just half an English ell, or 22 inches and a half. The height then will amount to 3825 feet. Trees grow only at about 1100 ells above the lake, or in our

our measure about 2000 feet. If, therefore, the altitude of the lake above the sea be computed, we shall find that in the latitude of 63° or 64° , the bounds of vegetation is at 1714 ells above the sea, about 3214 feet.

The eighth memoir consists of a medical case of some importance. A woman seven months pregnant, weeding in her garden felt a bite on her toe, so slight that she thought it arose from a nettle: but as the pain increased, she turned back and saw a serpent escaping. She went home, but in her way felt the progress of the poison: she felt, or fancied she felt, the child restless, and at last convulsed very violently, without any of the pains preceding abortion. In three or four minutes, the child seemingly dead, felt like a weight in the womb. As there was no other remedy, she drank largely of new milk, her body at the same time swelling and growing black with the most excruciating pain. To the wound was applied oil of tobacco, which the country people consider as a specific against the bites of snakes; but neither this nor deep scarifications were of any service. The woman, greatly agitated, in the intervals of her delirium desired to be bled. After the operation had been twice performed, she miscarried of a dead infant of the colour of lead and enormously swelled. With the lochia, which were very copious and black, much of the poison may be supposed to have been discharged, for without any other evacuation the tumour subsided; she recovered her natural colour and her former health.

M. Claud. Bjerkander tells us, that, in the month of August, on the *solidago virga aurea*, were found some brown aphides, *pedibus & antennis griseis, antennis corporis longitudinem equantibus*. When pressed, they afford a brown colour, whose nature he recommends as an object of future enquiry. M. Sefstrom recommends smoke of camphor for killing fleas.

The fourth trimestre is very short. The first memoir, by Afzelius, botanical lecturer at Upsal, contains 'some observations relating to the knowledge of the Swedish plants.' He enumerates some indigenous plants not inserted in the *Floræ Suecicæ*, defines their characters more exactly, corrects some errors, and points out some ambiguities with much botanical parade. The *polypodium cristatum* he describes more accurately, and has illustrated his description with a plate.

Swederus describes the twenty-five insects omitted in the former Number; and M. Bugge computes the powers of a moveable wheel, allowing for the weight of the wheel and the rope.

In the fourth memoir M. Swartz describes a new genus of plants which he calls the *solandra*, from Dr. Solander. In the last edition of the *Systema Vegetabilium*, this name is given to a plant long since distinguished by a very different name in France; but the name was assigned to the present genus by Linnæus and Alstroemer: it is represented on a medal struck in honour of Solander. The plant was gathered in Jamaica, and belongs

belongs to the pentandria monogynia, in the section of flores monopetali, inferi angiospermi. A branch is engraved of its natural size. Plumier was the only person formerly acquainted with it, and he drew it under the name of stramonium scandens flore luteo; but his drawing was never published.

M. Hornstedt describes the acrocordus, a new genus of serpent from the island of Java, an account of which we have already given: its place in Linnæus is immediately before the amphibiaena.

The volume concludes with a description of the coracia garula of Linnæus, (Angl. Roller) with an account of its manners and economy. The male is distinguished by the extreme feathers of his tail, each side being at least two inches longer than the others, by their points being black; the circle round the eyes wider, by two or three verrucæ, which, at the time of treading swell, so that the root of the beak is almost covered by the feathers, which are pushed forwards by the swelling. Two or three males fight for one female, but when the victory is decided the pair live constantly together. Willughby (Ornithol. p. 89. Tab. 2c) and Edwards (Nat. Hist. of Birds, p. 103.) have described the male: Linnæus (Faun. Suecic. ed. 2. p. 32.) and Brisson (Ornithol. tom. i. p. 177.) have described the female. Where Hellenius lives, they arrive with the swallows from about the tenth to the twentieth of May, and have usually retired before the middle of August; so that, there at least, they cannot plunder the new-sown fields which they have been, perhaps unjustly, charged with; as in North America the gracula quiscuta is suspected of eating the peas which have been sown, though it has been discovered that they feed only on the larvæ of insects, by whom the whole crop would be otherwise destroyed.

Essai sur l'Histoire Naturelle de Chili, par M. l'Abbé Molina, traduit de l'Italien Et enrichi de Notes, par M. l'Abbé Grunck, M. D. Paris. Née de la Rochelle. 8vo.

FROM the numerous works relating to different parts of South America, we have reason to hope that we shall in time receive some satisfactory accounts of this most beautiful part of the southern hemisphere. Chili, in particular, was so little known, and, what we knew of it was so doubtful, so equivocal, and so contradictory, that from the first appearance of this work, we took some steps to procure it: we had not received the original, when chance threw in our way the translation, which appears so well executed, that we have not hesitated to give the earliest account of it. The abbé was born in the country, lived many years in it, and appears to be well acquainted with natural history; and the translator, to an accurate knowledge of the language, seems to join no little skill in the same science.

Chili

Chili* has been called the Garden of America, as Italy has obtained the name of the Garden of Europe. The climate of these two countries is nearly the same, and they are equally distant from the equator. Each country is long and narrow; each is divided by a chain of mountains, from whence the various rivers, which water it, arise. Our author laid the foundation of this work in his early youth, and has been for many years continually adding to it. He divides the subject into four parts: in the first he gives some account of the seasons, the meteors, the volcanos, earthquakes; and every thing which relates to the climate in general: in the three other parts he explains the objects of the three kingdoms of nature, beginning from the mineral, and rising by degrees to man, whom he considers so far as his form and constitution are influenced by the country. The Patagonians, or pretended giants, he thinks are the mountaineers of Chili. The work is terminated by a methodical description of the new species mentioned in it, arranged according to the system of Linnæus, and by the Chilian names of the different subjects. We shall select from this work, in the order of the narrative, and in general in the words of the author, whatever may appear interesting or agreeable.

The abbé Molina describes the country as a soil naturally fertile, adapted to every useful production; the temperature mild, almost always equal, and the climate extraordinarily healthy. This, though perhaps a little exaggerated, we can easily believe; for, on one side, the breezes from the Pacific, and, on the other, the Andes covered with perpetual snow, the highest mountains in the world, must naturally soften the fervour of the almost tropical sun of the northern parts. Before the arrival of the Spaniards contagious diseases were unknown. They brought the small-pox, which are still distinguished by the name of the plague, and which occasionally occur in the northern provinces. Their neighbours, during the prevalence of the epidemic, make them perform a rigorous quarantine; and, in this way, preserve themselves from it. When those tribes of Indians suspect any one to be infected with it, and the suspicion arises from their having had connection with the Spaniard, they burn him in his hut by means of lighted arrows; a method violent indeed, but it has succeeded in checking the progress of the malady. A physician of the country, F. M. Verdago, was the first who, in 1761, tried inoculation; and since that period it has had great success. Tertians and quartans are equally unknown; and the inhabitants of the neighbouring marshy provinces, who are attacked by them, come into this country, where in a very short time they re-

* Chili comprehends the whole of the western side of America on the Pacific Ocean, from Cape Horn, to the twenty-fifth degree of south latitude, where it is bounded by Peru. It is narrow, since on the east is the province of La Plata.

cover their health. There are some years when an ardent fever, accompanied by delirium, occurs among the country people, chiefly in summer and autumn. This disease, which the Indians cure by the help of vegetables that experience has taught them, is called *chavolonco*, the disease of the head. The venereal disease has made very little progress in the Spanish possessions, and still less among the Indians: it is remarkable that there is no word in the language of Chili to characterise this malady; and, from these considerations, it is probable, that it has been known only since the arrival of the Spaniards. Indeed Columbus had visited only the islands, when he was accused of bringing home this dreadful scourge, and the distance of Chili, added to the little communication which was afterwards found to prevail among the different nations of South America, will perhaps be thought to counterbalance in some degree the testimony of our author.

The rickets, which within these two hundred years have made so great ravages in Europe, had not reached Chili; and the number of the lame and the deformed is consequently very small. Many other diseases of warm countries, as the disease of Siam (*elephantiasis*?), the *morbus niger*, the lepra, &c. are unknown here. M. Condamine's observation, that cats and dogs do not become mad in South America, is well founded, and supported by our author's testimony. Chili, indeed, is unacquainted with any of those dangerous and venomous animals, which the luxuriant soil of warm countries frequently nourishes.

The water of the rivers is at its greatest height from September to February. In some of these, ebbs and flows may be observed, which are attributed to the exposed situation of their sources, and the influence of the sun on them. These rivers never overflow, and inundations are uncommon in Chili; for the beds are large and seldom deep, though often too deep to be traversed without danger on horseback. The opinion that snow-water produces the goitres is now, we believe, universally given up; but, as we have remarked that the Andes are covered with snow, the rivers are very generally composed of melted snow; yet the disease is unknown. The water, our author tells us, is excellent.

Authors, who have written on the fertility of Chili, do not agree respecting the productions of the earth. Some pretend that they gather sixty or eighty parts for one part sown; others assert, that it is styled a bad harvest if they do not gather an hundred for one; others raise the crop so far as an hundred and thirty. 'I am far, adds the abbé, from criticising those respectable authors, many of whom have been eye-witnesses of the facts; especially as we sometimes observe prodigious increases, which ought not, however, to serve for a standard. I remember to have seen some lands that have produced from an hundred and twenty to an hundred and sixty for one; but the com-

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mon harvests in the internal parts of the country afford generally from sixty to seventy, and the ground on the coast from forty to fifty. In the provinces situated between the 24th and 34th degree of latitude, the harvests are generally more constant, because the husbandmen water their fields by canals; while, in the northern provinces, they depend only on the natural dews, though the brooks and rivers offer them the same advantages. I believe the calculation may be extended, if we reckon the quantity of wheat lost in the harvest, since it is seldom reaped till it begins to germinate, and the wheat, left on the ground, is often sufficient for a new crop, without the labour of sowing again.

There are many plants, he observes, which Chili possesses in common with Europe, as plantains, succory, sage, nettles, mallows, &c. others, which are cultivated with care in the gardens here, grow naturally in that country, as the lupins, pimento, cresses, celery, fennel, &c. Several tropical plants succeed very well in the northern provinces (the reader will recollect that we speak of a country *beyond* the equator), as the sugar-cane, the cotton-tree, the banana, the jalap, and mechoacana. Besides these, Chili produces a great number which are peculiar to herself. The plants which our author collected in his different botanical excursions amount, he says, to three thousand, of which the greater part are not described in any botanical work. Among them, he tells us, that there are many whose flowers are very superb, which deserve to be cultivated with care; but the inhabitants, we find, have the common error of preferring the exotics of Europe to their own riches. The number of aromatic plants, which grow wild, give the flesh of animals, not domesticated, a flavour with which the inhabitants of other countries are unacquainted. As the different vegetables which afford them nourishment succeed each other regularly, and *there is no want of verdure at any time of the year*, forage is not preserved dry as in other countries. In the cities, horses are fed with barley and a kind of cultivated trefoil. The meadows afford twelve different sorts of trefoil, much lucern, and a kind of Venus looking-glass, which they call loiqui lahuen, or alfilerillo, which cattle are very fond of. The Chilians call the maize, gua. It succeeds well in Chili, and the inhabitants cultivate eight or nine varieties, of which many bear three or four loaded stalks. One of these varieties is preferred to every other, and is called aminta. The grains are bruised while they are fresh, like cocoa-nuts for making chocolate, and butter and sugar are added: they afterwards boil it in water. Magu, a kind of wheat, and teica, a species of barley, were cultivated by the Araucos, before the arrival of the Spaniards; but, since the corn of Europe has been introduced, these species have been neglected, and I have not, adds the abbé, even been able to procure a specimen of them.

In the province of St. Jago is found a species of wild basil

(*oeyum salinum*), which greatly resembles the common basil; except in the stalk; which, in this species, is round and jointed. Its smell and taste are those of flags and sea-weeds. The plant, which grows from the earliest spring so long as the beginning of winter, is found every-morning covered with saline globules, which are hard and splendid: they look at a distance like dew, and each plant furnishes about half an ounce every day. The peasants collect this salt, and use it like common salt; though in flavour it is superior. The abbé thinks this phenomenon difficult to explain; since the plant grows in very sterile ground, at a distance of more than sixty miles from the sea, where there is no other vestige of salt. But, while we see that different species of plants form salts in their constitution; from the very simple materials found in the ground, and perceive that in different kinds these salts are more or less evolved, we need not be surprised if they should be sometimes separated so perfectly as to exude with the insensible perspiration, and to concrete on its evaporation.

The Chilians, for a series of ages, have used their indigenous plants for dying; and their superior quality rendered the introduction of foreign dyes wholly superfluous. The abbé tells us that he has cloths dyed in this country, which, after thirty years use, have lost nothing of their beauty. The yellow, the red, the green, and the blue are equally permanent; neither the air nor soap can change them. In the northern provinces they employ a plant for the blue dye which is not known. Among the Araucos, and in the Spanish territories, they employ indigo, dissolved by fermenting urine; and the stuff or linen is dipped in it several times. This simple process is said to give a durable and beautiful colour: the volatile alkali, separated by the fermentation, is thought to fix, "to bite in," the colouring parts of the indigo. The red is produced by a kind of madder; the *rubia Chilensis*. A kind of eupatorium, *eupatorium Chilense*, furnishes the yellow, which is sometimes procured from the poquel, the *santolina tinctoria*, a species of cresses, whose elongated leaves give it the appearance of flax: the stalks produce the green colour. The root of a lively plant, called *panke*, affords a beautiful black; and this is the most useful plant of Chili. Some authors have called it the *bardana Chilensis*, because its leaves resemble those of the *bardana*, though the fructification is entirely different. The colour comes from the juice of the root, which may be also used for ink, since its viscosity, and the beautiful black which it acquires from time, render it very proper for this purpose. Perhaps it may be really a natural ink, since every vegetable contains a little iron, and the astringent power of the *panke* is evident from its being employed to tan leather. It is, however, a deleterious plant; it is necessary to bruise it for the tanner's use; but the smell is so strong that the workman cannot endure it for half an hour. The shoemakers employ the woody stalk for the lasts of the shoes; and they

suppose

suppose it to be lasting. The internal parts of the stalk are slightly acid; and, on this account, are eaten in the summer. Our limits will not allow us to extend this account much farther. What we have extracted will, we suppose, render our readers solicitous to look at the work; but we must not omit what the abbé says of the inhabitants of Chili.

Man, says M. Molina, enjoys in Chili all the advantages derived from a mild and steady climate; and those who do not shorten their lives by irregularity, arrive in that country to an advanced age. Notwithstanding the assertions of M. Paw, I have known more than one old man of 104, 105, and even of 115 years. D. Antonio Roza died there not many years since at the age of 106. My uncle and great uncle, both creoles, reached the age of 95 and 96 respectively. These examples are not rare, particularly among the natives. The women are very fruitful; and in no country perhaps are twins so common. The Chilians, like the Tartars, have very little beard; and their custom of plucking out the hairs makes them seem beardless. The nippers are their common companions, and they make always one of the instruments on their toilet. Yet there are some who have beards as strong as the Spaniards. The opinion that the want of a beard shows a weak constitution is not supported by this people. The Indians are generally vigorous, and bear fatigue better than the Creoles: on this account Indians are chosen for the laborious works. Those who inhabit the plains are of the same shape with the Europeans; but the inhabitants of the mountains are distinguished by a taller stature, and I am persuaded that these are the Patagonians so often spoken of. Lord Anson's opinion is exactly the same: the descriptions which Byron, Wallis, Carteret, Bougainville, Duclos, and Giraudais give of these pretended giants agree perfectly with our mountaineers. What confirms me in this opinion is, that their language is the Chilese, as we can judge from the few words which these voyagers have preserved. Besides, the language of the Patagons contains many Spanish words, which sufficiently proves that there is a communication between the two nations. The ordinary stature of these mountaineers is about five feet seven inches, and the tallest that I have seen was six feet three inches*. But what makes them appear larger is the enormous size of their limbs, which appear by no means proportioned to their height: their hands and feet form an exception to this observation, for they are very small. The whole of their figure is not unpleasing: their faces are usually round, noses rather large, eyes brilliant, teeth of a dazzling whiteness; hair black and in disorder: some of them have a moustache. They have generally a browner tint than the Chilians, because they are continually in the air.

* These are probably French feet, and we must correct the measure by our standard. The first is nearly equal to five feet eleven inches; the last to six feet seven inches and three quarters.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

M E D I C A L.

Observations on the Rupture of the Gravid Uterus : with the Sequel to Mrs. Manning's Case. By Andrew Douglas, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

DR. Douglas has enlarged his former observations by additional cases, and the sequel of that very interesting and important one, which was the occasion of his first publication. It occurs in our LXth volume, p. 396. Mrs. Manning was soon afterwards again pregnant; and if we except a severe pain, probably from some adhesion in consequence of the former inflammation, the pregnancy went on well, and she was delivered of a living child at the end of the eighth month: the recovery was scarcely interrupted. In a subsequent parturition at the usual time, a little faintness, pain at the bottom of the back, and vomiting, came on soon after delivery, but disappeared in about an hour. In this pregnancy too the pain of the side was felt, but a little higher. The adhesions had not, probably, been all destroyed. Our author's very judicious conclusions, from the cases selected, we shall transcribe: they will conclude our article.

'First: That a rupture of the gravid uterus, which has even allowed a foetus to pass into the cavity of the abdomen, is not to be considered as a case absolutely hopeless.

'Secondly: That no relief is reasonably to be expected from any power which we can suppose the constitution to have over a foetus in such circumstances.

'Thirdly: That the danger of such a case is not solely from the injury done to the uterus itself; but is greatly increased by that which the viscera must sustain, from the child remaining in the cavity of the abdomen.

'Fourthly: That the danger will generally be in proportion to the time the child is suffered to remain among the viscera, and to the susceptibility of irritation which then prevails in the constitution.

'Fifthly: That delivery affords the only prospect of recovery to the patient; and should therefore be effected as soon as the circumstances will permit: and that by delivery is to be understood the extraction of both foetus and placenta.'

An Essay on the Rupture called Hydrocele. By Benjamin Humpage, Surgeon. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

This pamphlet comprehends a short anatomical description of the parts, the methods of different authors ancient and modern, with the objections which occur on each subject and each mode of proceeding. What is new, independent of the objections, which have great force, though perhaps those derived from the uncertainty of the radical attempt, are not

not so satisfactory as the others, may be comprised in a few pages. Our author's plan, or rather his first improvement, consists in the constant or occasional use of the sponge tent, according to the pain and inflammation excited; the second depends on corroding a circle of the skin, where Mr. Else applies his caustic by means of the concentrated nitrous acid. The acid is confined by a circular ring of defensive plaster, within which there is a round plaster somewhat less in diameter. Our author thinks his method a very advantageous one; but reasoning for this purpose would be useless: the whole must be referred to the decision of experience.

Considerations on Bilious Diseases: and some particular Affections of the Liver, and the Gall Bladder. By John Andree, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.

These Considerations contain some useful and interesting remarks, but they are so little below the surface, that many apothecaries and most old women could supply the defect, if this pamphlet had never been published. The author has been himself bilious; but his own experience furnishes little that is new. The pain at the pit of the stomach is relieved by warm tea, and cordials employed, for it might produce indurations of the liver; aloes are well adapted for the disease; a scirrhus liver cannot be felt, sometimes, through the integuments. Is there any thing more? Truly we have not perceived any thing of more importance.

D I V I N I T Y.

A Sermon preached at the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, London, before his Majesty, and both Houses of Parliament, on Thursday, April 23, 1789, being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving. By Beilby, Lord Bishop of London. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

In a moment of solemn thanksgiving for a great and essential benefit, it was perhaps the best subject of reflection that we are in the Lord's hands, and that from him flow blessings as well as afflictions, benefits as well as trials and distress. From the example of David, who in his way to the throne of Israel, and after he was securely seated on it, experienced various misfortunes, the bishop properly advises his hearers to put their trust in the Lord.

'O tarry thou the Lord's leisure; be strong, and he shall comfort thine heart; and put thou thy trust in the Lord.'

This is a precept not only of the law, but of the gospel; and it cannot be too deeply impressed on our hearts: indeed the most rational and well founded piety is conspicuous in every page of this discourse.

A Sermon on the Occasion of his Majesty's Recovery from the Indisposition with which it pleased Almighty God to afflict him, preached in the Parish Church of Mansfield, on Thursday the 23d of April, 1789. By the Rev. Charles Plumtree, M. A. 4to. 1s. Longman.

In this short Sermon, which the author says he published merely because it was desired, he takes occasion seriously, but briefly, to lament the prevalence of duelling, suicide, adultery, gaming, and theft. He observes that God has heretofore blessed this nation in a peculiar manner, and concludes with saying, 'therefore, that virtue and religion may be re-established universally among us by our sovereign's example and authority, let us all, in thankfulness for this his fresh preservation of us, pray fervently, with one heart and one voice, God save the king.' To which we most heartily say amen.

Causes for observing the late memorable Event, by a public and National Thanksgiving: a Sermon. 8vo. 1s. Payne and Son.

We shall copy the Address to the Public prefixed to this production, of which we see no reason to doubt the truth.

'The following discourse was partly composed, and partly extracted from a volume of posthumous sermons (but little known) by an unbeneficed clergyman, of the bishop of London's diocese; who, with a wife and five children, and debts unavoidably contracted, to the amount of one hundred pounds, has no dependance whatever, besides two curacies, in an obscure part of the country; the one of thirty, and the other of twenty-five pounds.'

Did this work possess less merit than it really does, we should be glad to promote its sale. But we are afraid that the profits of a single sermon, and that upon so hackneyed a subject, will go but a little way towards relieving the distress of the reverend author and his family. All that we poor critics can do, is to drop this hint to those whom it may and ought to concern.

S L A V E - T R A D E .

Scripture the Friend of Freedom; exemplified, by a Refutation of the Arguments offered in Defence of Slavery, in a Tract entitled, Scriptural Researches on the Licitness of the Slave Trade. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

Notwithstanding the unhappy prevalence of infidelity and irreligion, it still continues a matter of some consequence to contending disputants, to shew that they have the Scriptures on their side of the question. This is a sanction for which it is still thought worth while eagerly to contend. There is scarcely any cause so bad but the sacred volume has been pressed into its service. Owing to the perverseness of the human mind, it has been made to teach despotism to kings, and abject submission to subjects; to enjoin all the bloody horrors of the inquisition; and

and lastly, Mr Harris and some other writers have endeavoured to convince mankind that it countenances the African slave trade. The object of the work before us is to prove the very reverse; and we are of opinion that the author has succeeded in shewing, that the *spirit and meaning* of the Scriptures are on his side of the question. But we do not think his language elegant, or his reasoning so perspicuous and forcible as some other replies which the 'Scriptural Researches' have called forth. Perhaps the advocates for the slave-trade would do well to confine themselves more to the arguments of commercial policy, and political necessity. This seems to be their strong ground.

No Abolition; or, an Attempt to prove to the Conviction of every rational British subject, that the Abolition of the British Trade with Africa for Negroes, would be a Measure as unjust as impolitic, fatal to the Interests of this Nation, ruinous to its Sugar Colonies, and more or less pernicious in its Consequences to every Description of the People. 4to. 2s. Debrett.

Our author's violence, as usual, renders his facts suspicious; though many of these are extracted from the best sources. After a History of the African Trade, from our first connections with its western coast to the present time, he calculates the advantages derived from the trade to the nation, by a rather pompous display of the shipping and sailors employed; by the vast property at stake, on the event of the abolition, in our West India islands; and the utility of this trade, not only from the manufactures exported, but from the West India productions brought back in return. Of his reasoning, or declamation, we shall add a specimen: his facts, we suppose, have in general a better foundation.

'It is humanity with a vengeance, to cut off from the remaining colonies, the means of their existence; to doom to ruin 58,000 of our fellow-subjects; and to hazard the loss of ships, seamen, income, and revenue, whose amount and value to Great Britain, almost surpasses the powers of computation.

'Admirable *humanity!*—to violate all compact with, and wrest from them their birth-rights. To coerce; to denounce the terrible thunder of Britain; to do what? to crush its benefactors. The brave veterans of the British navy could never tarnish their well earned honours, by the disgraceful office to be assigned them, of sentinels to intercept supplies from the islands, and starve their honest industrious countrymen.

'There can be no doubt, but that the wretches whom a pretended *humanity* would leave to be destroyed on the African coast, will be taken care of by our ancient competitors the French and Dutch. But the fate of those now existing in the island, is more doubtful.—They will diminish in number.—The work of many, will become too heavy for a few.—Their discontent will increase in proportion, until some fatal catastrophe shall terminate the scene.'

Doubts concerning the Legality of Slavery in any Part of the British Dominions. 8vo. 6d. Stockdale.

This author observes, that colonel Henderson, a zealous opponent of the abolition of the slave-trade, stated last year before the committee of privy council, as appears by their report, the reasons why in his opinion this country has no right to deprive the West Indian planters even of one hour's labour of their slaves without their consent. His principal argument was, that *all the old and valuable laws of England are the birthright of the inhabitants of Jamaica*, and that therefore they have the same legal rights as the people of England to the possession of their property.

The writer of the little pamphlet before us avails himself very ingeniously of this argument, and concludes, if the laws of England are the birthright of the inhabitants of Jamaica, that every man in Jamaica is free, whether native or alien, and equally entitled to the protection of the English laws. He argues that this is a right which no colonial legislature can take away; and that it can no more take it away from the Negro, than from any other stranger who should happen to be in the colony. This he conceives to be the natural consequence of what he considers colonel Henderson has unwarily advanced relative to the inhabitants of Jamaica and our other islands 'being entitled to the full enjoyment of the British constitution in all its parts; one of the peculiar and inestimable privileges of which the author before us says is, that where that exists, slavery cannot exist, and that every alien is, equally with the native, entitled to the full protection of the laws as to his life, his property, and his liberty.' This writer thinks, that until an act of parliament is obtained to legalize slavery, the Negroes have an undoubted right to claim their liberty in the court of King's Bench of Jamaica, or, on refusal of redress there, to appeal to that English jurisdiction which is authorized to hear appeals from our colonies.

P O L I T I C A L.

A Review of the Parliamentary Conduct of the right hon. Charles James Fox, and the right hon. Edmund Burke. 8vo. 2s. Stalker.

This pamphlet is chiefly a panegyric on Mr. Fox, but copiously larded with trite remarks and details concerning different administrations. The author says, that his 'aim and endeavour has been to blend the *utile* with the *dulce*, to inform and entertain.' But we must acquaint him, that in a subject of this nature, his endeavour to entertain was misplaced. Nor, indeed, have we received any other entertainment from the perusal than what arises either from the evidence of his own partiality, or the numerous, hackneyed, and often inapplicable quotations from Shakspeare.

A Fragment

A Fragment which dropped from the Pocket of a certain Lord, on Thursday the 23d of April, 1789, on his Way to St. Paul's with the Grand Procession. 8vo, 2s. 6d. Priest.

We apprehend there is an erratum in the title of this pamphlet, and that instead of *Lord*, we ought to read, *Grub-street* author. But let the Fragment drop from whom it might, it certainly was not worth the picking up, far less the publishing. A more insipid production, though stuffed with poetical quotations, we do not remember to have seen. The author has affixed to it as a motto, *liber i pete famam*, but alas, how inapplicable!

P O E T R Y.

Conway Castle. A Poem. To which are added, Verses to the Memory of the late Earl of Chatham; and the Moon, a Simile for the fashionable World. By James White, Esq. 4to 2s. Doddley.

The verses on Conway Castle are professedly an imitation of the elegiac measure of the Greeks and Romans. Sydney's verse, Pope observed, halted on Roman feet, and we do not think Mr. White has succeeded better, though he not only asserts his pretensions to an equality, but to a sort of superiority over his classical predecessors.

'In their elegy, the ear was relieved by the manner of terminating the second line in every distich: this imparted at the same time an additional plaintiveness to the composition. But the mode here attempted, may be said to possess one advantage over that of antiquity, in being adapted not only to the melancholy strain, but also to subjects of an elevated nature. It appears to be capable both of tenderness and majesty.'

These advantages appear to us totally lost on the comparison. The mode is ungenial to our language. The halting pace of Sydney, and titupping amble of Mr. White, equally fail in giving a resemblance of the easy flow and harmonious cadences of Tibullus and Propertius, as may be judged from the opening lines.

'Conway, deserted pile, in whose exhausted halls
The discontented winds fresh wrath engender,
Whose figure knightly times to Fancy oft recalls,
Take the sole boon a passenger can render,

Who to thy tow'rs august in giddy wonder clings,
Thy mien unhumbl'd by mishap rehearces,
Thine aged arches grey and sea-worn rampart fings,
And moss-clad battlements, in plaintive verses.

Where oft in victor Edward's hand the goblet flow'd,
Where oft the dance was gay, perch'd owlets slumber,
And these thy roofless rooms, dull horror's chill abode,
Now formless fragments and vile clay encumber.'

The other poems are of little importance.

Thoughts,

Thoughts on the Seasons, &c. Partly in the Scottish Dialect. By David Davidson. 8vo. 3s. 6d. in Boards. Murray.

We find nothing so ridiculous in these Thoughts as to raise 'a laugh;' and nothing so abstruse in sentiment, or peculiar in language, though not Scotchmen. as to prevent us from 'fully understanding' our author's meaning. Allan Ramsay's Gentle Shepherd, if it be really Allan's, is often in our hands, and those who can understand its phraseology, will be at no loss for the meaning of the provincialisms occasionally scattered in this poem. Perhaps our author meant to give a Doric appearance to his language, but he ought to reflect, that this peculiarity cannot alone form a pleasing work: a pastoral must be free, easy, and natural in its language, its sentiments, and its construction, while it avoids too great familiarity, as well as unpolished and vulgar terms. We are sorry to observe that Mr. Davidson has not attained either the one or the other object.

Sable Victims. A Barbadoes Narration: inscribed to the Promoters of the Slave-Trade, and addressed to J. Hargrave, esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Bow.

The advocates for the abolition of the slave-trade have been induced, by their great zeal for their cause, to apply for assistance to Parnassus. It does not appear by the production before us that the Muses are particularly fond of the cause into which they have been pressed. The story of this poetical performance is somewhat similar to that of Oroonoko: but if slavery be allowed in the land of the Muses, we think this author deserves it for his lame and impotent attempt.

N O V E L S.

The Son of Ethelwulf. An Historical Novel. By the Author of Alan Fitzosborne. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Robinsons.

The Son of Ethelwulf is inferior to his predecessor; and though Alfred calls for all the veneration of an Englishman, yet his obscurity and his adventures afford little that is not well known, and that has not been often repeated in modern times. Some expressions are a little exceptionable: 'Alfred first of men,' is an encomium misapplied at the period when the words were spoken; and 'nurtured in the softness and delicacy of a court,' is a representation not very consistent with the manners of the times. But, notwithstanding these, and a few similar inconsistencies, this work has considerable merit. Miss Fuller engages attention by her pleasing language, and generally interests the reader by a varied contexture of adventure.

The Young Widow; or, the History of Cornelia Sedley, in a Series of Letters. 4 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Robinsons.

This work is the production of no common author; to an extensive knowledge of modern literature, he unites a very particular acquaintance with different parts of the continent; and our young ladies have some chance of improving their minds,

as well as of amusing their fancies, from the perusal of 'The Young Widow.' Yet, while we allow our author this advantage, we cannot compliment him on his success in what appears to us his new employment. The episode of Giuliana is excellent though at the expence of a little probability: the letters of Cornelia will perhaps be styled sermons; and, with all our respect for religion, we think the third volume hangs heavy on the hands; while Cornelia's motive for rejecting Seymour because of his tendency to infidelity, will not appear to many readers a sufficiently valid one for the hinge on which the whole plot turns. We should not have noticed this part, but to point out a strong contrast in our author's gentle treatment of seduction, and a life of avowed incontinency in Edmund and Sylvia. The story does not end happily; but, not to leave the reader in distress, the author gives a supplement, and resumes the narrative, after a period of fifteen years, to unite the children of Cornelia with those of the brother of Edmund. From the increased bulk of the fourth volume, this addition seems to have been made at the suggestion of some experienced critic, who knew the prevailing female taste for a happy, and consequently, in their opinion, for a matrimonial conclusion.

Danaster Races; or the History of Miss Mainland. A Tale of Truth. In a Series of Letters. Published from the Original, with interesting Additions. By Alexander Bicknell. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Stalker.

Mr. Bicknell was editor of Mrs. Bellamy's Apology, Captain Carver's Travels, &c. and he tells us, in his preface, that these works have 'been indebted in no inconsiderable degree to his pen for the universal approbation shown to them.' We point out this confession by the author of 'interesting additions,' that the public may be aware of the deception; and not quote as authentic, memoirs and travels which owe their merit to the editor, and his own supplementary remarks. In the work before us, we know not how much is real, and how much may be styled 'interesting additions;' but the whole is trite, flimsy, and improbable. The remarks on Egypt, so artificially brought in, and so unskilfully gleaned from Savary and Volney, may be perhaps the work of the editor; but, for the future, we must distrust an author who will first deceive, and then boast of his deception.

Priory of St. Bernard, an Old English Tale, being the first literary Production of a young Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

There is, as may be expected, much fancy, a luxuriance of description, and no little improbability in this work. The young lady steps in the vestiges of Miss Lee and other novellists, and violates a little the truth of history, by representing Richard as fickle, inconstant, and unjust. Yet, on the whole, it is a pleasing piece; and the young lady's opinion, that all her female personages are happy in the married state, shows that she herself

herself entertains favourable expectations when she follows their example: we hope she will not be disappointed.

The Spectre. In Two Volumes. Small 8vo. 6s. sewed.
Stockdale.

Our author's aim, in this novel, has been to mix general observation and more serious discussion with adventure. This plan has, however, as little novelty as the story of the Spectre, which, in substance, has been repeatedly detailed, particularly in the Sylph, and more closely in an old novel entitled the Apparition. There is great improbability also in the conduct, and little that can interest in the character or situations.

The few discussions which occur in this work deserve a better character. Perhaps the criticism on Emmeline is too severe: the defence of public schools is on a better foundation; and we must necessarily approve of it, since, in a former examination of the question, we were led to reason from the same positions. The little episode in the Grecian islands, we could have wished to have been more extended: at present the modern Greek poetry is most interesting; but some of the thoughts resemble so much the conceits of the Italians, and some those of little fugitive English poems, that we hesitate in allowing their authenticity on anonymous authority. The first is perhaps one of the best.

The rose, when dews of night are shed,
That folds its leaves and bows its head,
Shall to the genial beams of day
Its blushing beauties full display.
Ah! when shall Anthia's beauties rise
Again to bless these longing eyes?
Eyes that must close in endless night,
If the delay to charm their sight.
She comes, the lovely virgin see!
She comes again to love and me.
Before the radiance of her eye
The gloomy shades of sorrow fly.
Not so reviving morning's light
To flow'rs that wither, chill'd by night,
As the sweet hopes her smiles impart
To cheer with joy my drooping heart.'

Yet, notwithstanding some similarity, we ought not to be too fastidious, for many passages in these volumes show that the author is a man of taste, of judgment, and of learning.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

The Authentic Correspondence between the Duke of Richmond and Lord Rawdon. With an Appendix; containing Authentic Papers respecting the Affair between the Duke of York and Lieut. Col. Lenox. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway.

The correspondence between the duke of Richmond and lord Rawdon relative to some expressions supposed to have been used by

by the former in parliament, took place in February 1782, and was at that time fully detailed in the public prints. To that correspondence, however, which the editor of the present pamphlet very industriously rescues from oblivion, he has added 'authentic papers respecting the affair between the duke of York and lieut. col. Lenox;' in which he has likewise been anticipated by the news papers. We are sorry that the editor cannot employ his time to no better purpose than malignantly raking into the embers of discord which cannot be too soon extinguished.

Letter to the King: in which the Conduct of Mr. Lenox and the Minister, in the Affair with his Royal Highness the Duke of York, is fully considered. By Theophilus Swift, Esq. 8vo 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

In this Letter, Mr. Theophilus Swift professes to have fully considered the conduct of Mr. Lenox and the minister in the affair with the duke of York; but had he considered it a little more fully, his opinion would have been very different. That the minister should be dragged into a dispute in which he had no concern, may justly appear surprising; but the artifice probably suited the purpose of the author, who appears to be a violent party-man.

A Letter to Sir William Augustus Brown, Bart. on a late Affair of Honour with Colonel Lenox; and the Correspondence with the hon. Colonel Phipps. By Theophilus Swift, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

This letter relates to the late affair of honour, as it is called, between Mr. Swift and colonel Lenox. Mr. Swift endeavours to exculpate himself from two imputations; one is, that he discovered a sanguinary disposition, and the other, that he betrayed an unfair design in offering to go out alone with the colonel. Whether he vindicates himself on either of those heads to the satisfaction of impartial judges, is not very clearly ascertained. But there is a previous imputation of a different nature, which it may be as difficult to disprove, as it would have been easy not to incur; we mean that of rashness and imprudence. Mr. Swift professes to entertain the strongest sense of the obligations of religion and morality, yet he could deliberately, and without the smallest provocation, obtrude his officious and intemperate endeavours to rankle a wound, which every duty, and every liberal consideration, as well as humanity, should have prompted him rather to assuage. Mr. Swift might certainly have saved himself the trouble of entering his pamphlet at Stationer's Hall, for neither the subject nor the author's conduct can give it any pretensions to popularity.

A Short Review of the recent Affair of Honour between his Royal Highness the Duke of York and Lieut. Col. Lenox. By the Captain of a Company in one of the Regiments of Guards. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bell.

The author of this Review appears to give a candid and just account

account of his subject. He vindicates the conduct of lieutenant. col. Lenox through the whole of the transaction, and with such observations it must be acknowledged, as cannot but force the assent of all impartial and disinterested readers. Those who have injuriously attacked the character of col. Lenox, may have rendered this publication expedient; but enough is now said to satisfy the demands of truth and justice.

An Address to the Dissenters on Classical Literature. By E. Cogan.
8vo. 1s. Crowder.

We think the Dissenters are much obliged to the author of this well meant and sensible Address. If, as we suspect, the complaint be just, that this otherwise respectable body of men are, generally speaking, peculiarly deficient in classical knowledge, the sooner they attempt to remove this stigma the better. The cause and the remedy of the evil are here pointed out.

We cannot altogether agree with this and other authors in one respect, viz. that we have no orators, in modern times, equal to the ancient ones. It should be considered, that the orations which are handed down to us from antiquity, are either studied, precomposed productions; or, perhaps, written in the closet long after the time of their pretended delivery. We very much doubt whether the extempore, unpremeditated speeches, which are sometimes heard in the British senate, are not equal to any thing of the kind among the ancients.

As to the main object of this Address, we think that it behoves the Dissenters seriously to attend to it. In recommending his brethren, in dissent, to apply for assistance, in their schools, to the clergymen of the establishment, Mr. Cogan manifests an unusual degree of good sense and liberality.

The Rights of Dissenters from the Established Church. In Relation principally to English Catholics. By the rev. Joseph Berington.
8vo. 2s. Robinsons.

Mr. Berington's different publications led us to conclude that he was himself a dissenter from the church of Rome; at least his opinions on some tenets of the Romish church, are so different from those of other Catholics, that we apprehend he is considered by many as a weak and falling brother. His account of the Revolution, with a few exceptions natural to his principles and situation, is extremely just, and he labours to clear himself and his society from the charge of Jacobitism; an attempt not very difficult, since the divine right of succession is no more. He contends that the oath of allegiance secures their fidelity; but he does not give his opinion of that power claimed by the pope of dispensing with oaths. In other respects, according to his representation, the claims of the Catholics are at least as fair as those of the Dissenters. We are sorry that we have not yet met with arguments sufficiently strong to convince us of the justice of either.

Private

Private Worth the Basis of Public Decency. An Address to People of Rank and Fortune. By a Member of Parliament. 4to. 3s. Richardson.

We have seldom read a more interesting and useful address, where the author, in the most forcible and elegant language, and occasionally with the warmest indignation, impresses on his reader the necessity of beginning a general reformation, by an attention to the moral duties; and shows very pointedly that this attention, to be effectual, should originate in the first ranks of society.

‘But how the characters of such as fill the superior walks of life may affect inferiors, and operate on public decency, is an object peculiarly interesting to all who have any sincere regard for the laws of heaven or the laws of England. And it is not easy to make a conscientious election among candidates for power, who are chiefly distinguished by politics without morality, morality without religion, and religion without morality; who cover private profligacy by public pretension: and who substitute prudery for virtue, or resolve all human and divine obligations into mere form or etiquette. What are all these but certain traits of the same low, unprincipled character? And surely he can be no patriot, however eminent and popular, whose abilities are prostituted in fabricating apologies for obliquity, or who does cheerfully forego a little of his own inclination for the benefit of others: no philosopher, who asserts not the dignity of his nature at the expence of his passions; and no statesman, in whose measures there is a general dissidence, of whose integrity there can be a doubt, whose principles are as pliable as his propensities are unaccommodating.’

We have transcribed this short passage as a specimen of our author's manner, and as some hint respecting the intended application of his sentiments. Both the one and the other have our warmest and most unreserved approbation.

A Statement of Facts, occasional of, and relative to, the late Disturbances at the Theatre Royal, Edinburgh. By James Fennel. 8vo. 1s. Bell.

It appears that Mr. Fennel, having unfortunately incurred the displeasure of some persons at Edinburgh, has retired from the stage, to save the managers from the consequences with which he was threatened, by retaining that performer. In such a situation we cannot but sympathise with Mr. Fennel, who, according to the present Statement, seems to have been arbitrarily and cruelly treated. If, however, he should continue in his resolution of relinquishing the stage, we hope he will choose such a part in the drama of life, as will render him less dependant on the caprice either of individuals or the public.

A Description

A Description of a Set of Prints of Roman History, contained in a Set of Easy Lessons. By Mrs. Trimmer.

A Series of Prints of Roman History, designed as Ornaments for those Apartments in which Children receive the first Rudiments of their Education. 24mo. 2s. 4d. Marshall.

The Description and the Plates are admirably adapted for the purpose designed. The ingenious author gives an outline of the Roman History, in plain but neat language, and leads the young pupil to a knowledge of facts as well as of words. We were peculiarly pleased with the management of the story of the Rape of the Sabines; and, though not accustomed to transcribe from school books, we think our readers will be entertained with it.

‘THE SABINE WOMEN interposing between the TWO ARMIES.

‘Romulus prevailed on a number of people from other countries to join him, and increased his colony very much; but most of his followers had no wives, and they could not well manage their household affairs without them; so Romulus made a great feast, and exhibited fine fights, which drew the neighbouring people together, among whom were a great number of young women; but in the midst of their diversion, the Romans rushed in among the strangers, and carried off some hundreds of their daughters, and obliged them to marry such husbands as Romulus chose for them.

‘This outrage incensed the neighbouring nations very much; and at last there was a dreadful war between the Romans and Sabines, in which the latter got possession of the city; at length the women (having been kindly treated by their Roman husbands) resolved, through the advice of a very sensible lady, called Hersilia, to try to put an end to it: so Hersilia and the rest dressed themselves in deep mourning, and taking their little babes in their arms, went to the field of battle, and ran in among the troops, begging them to desist. Upon this the warriors on both sides let fall their weapons, and soon after came to an agreement, that Romulus and Tatius, the Sabine king, should reign both together in Rome.

‘The Sabine women acted in a very becoming manner on this occasion; for it is proper for women to do every thing in their power to promote peace, both in public and private life.’

The Busy Body. A Collection of Periodical Essays, Moral, Whimsical, Comic, and Sentimental. By Mr. Oulton. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Stalker.

This slight Collection may amuse the passing moment, but calculated at first for the meridian of a newspaper, the reader must not look in it for deep researches, acute investigations, or recondite learning. It is enough if it catches the fleeting folly as it arises, if it embodies the Cynthia of the minute, and bids it ‘live a little longer.’

The essays, the memoirs, and the characters, are of the light amusing kind, where the mind will be employed without being engaged, where it may attend to the series of the transactions, without the labour of investigation, or the pain of following a chain of close reasoning. If the author steps from this line he occasionally trips: he seems not to be aware that *literati* may be feminine, because it is the plural of the Italian *literato*, not of the Latin *literatus*, and of *literato* there is no feminine. He does not recollect that extempore means without premeditation, and that corpse is now a naturalized English word, and means a *dead* body: the epithet added to it is, in both his instances, a pleonasm for the purpose of rendering the expression stronger.

Our author's chief excellence lies in the humour of his parodies and imitations. In the letter from Lingo to Cowslip, the humour of the schoolmaster is well preserved, and we may now remark, that this strange inconsistent character is borrowed from one equally strange, Holofernes, in Shakspeare's 'Love's Labour lost.' As this epistle is too long, we shall conclude with our author's amplification of Pope's examples of bad poetry. It is very well conducted.

‘How oft dull particles *do* strike our view,
And many ANDs and other trifles too;
Then in a line or two how oft we find,
With art most great, ten, ten small words are join’d.
But polysyllables for this make good,
The *magni-multi-tudinous* intrude,
And with great Alexander’s train *at length* conclude.
With gaping vowels next the line o’erflows,
Lo oft the one the other to oppose,
Or harsh discordant consonants, like those.
As to the rhyme in the same line you’ll see,
A word agree with what the rhyme may be;
And should the bard attempt to paint some trouble,
’Tis ten to one his rhyme is gay and double.
How many to the chyming art pre-tend?
While the same syllable will still at-tend;
Some for the sake of sound most wisely con-
Triving, have made two words of only one;
Lines with false measure never sweetly flow,
They are unnatural whose feet to many grow,
But wanting, like cripples, hobble so.’

Thirty-Eight Plates, with Explanations; intended to illustrate Linnæus’s System of Vegetables, and particularly adapted to the Letters on the Elements of Botany. By T. Martyn, B. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 9s. plain; 78s. coloured. White and Son.

These Plates are designed to illustrate professor Martyn’s very useful and elegant edition of Rousseau’s Letters in the English Language, which he has so properly explained and enlarged by his supplementary remarks. The six first plates are designed to
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explain the six natural classes described by Rousseau, viz. the liliaceous, of which the example is the white lily; the cruciform, illustrated by the stock gilly-flower, with explanations of the class tetradynaria; the orders filiquosa and filiculosa, and a figure of the almost spherical filicle of the candy tuft; the papilionaceous, exemplified by the garden-pea; the ringent flowers, for instance, the dead-nettle, the snapdragon, and the purple fox-glove; the umbellate flowers, illustrated by the garden-parsley, the fool's parsley, the garden-chervil, and the common elder; the compound flowers, as the common daisy, the dandelion, and the red clover.

The other plates represent the different classes of Linnæus, and sometimes the orders, when they form natural associations. The examples are very properly taken from common plants, so that the author's representations may be easily compared with the productions of nature. The plates of the cryptogamia are copied from Hedwig, where the objects are magnified; and the thirty-fourth plate represents nectaria of different kinds. The engravings in general cannot boast of elegance, but they are clear and exact.

CORRESPONDENCE.

To the CRITICAL REVIEWERS.

GENTLEMEN,

THOUGH I have now for many years presumed occasionally to address the public from the press, yet I have never either directly or indirectly interfered with the critical censure which has been passed upon my publications. I have ever left them to make their own way by such merits as they might possess; and have rather been desirous of improving by the remarks they have suggested, than of controverting the remarks themselves. Nor do I now mean to deviate from this general practice, but merely to reply to an observation or two which may be termed *personal*, contained in your account of a work of mine in your last month's Journal.

The notice you have pleased to take of *England Delineated* is, upon the whole, such as ought to give me satisfaction. You have spoken liberally of its merits, gently of its faults, and have recommended it to the attention of those readers for whom it was designed. It is only with respect to the matter of two paragraphs, *extraneous to the merits of the work*, that I beg to be indulged with a few words. Near the beginning of the article you say, 'He seems to hint that his letters have not always been attended to: perhaps his correspondents thought it unreasonable that an author in a retired corner should hang out his eleemosynary box, and expect it to be filled by gratuitous communications for his own benefit.' Now I cannot but feel somewhat harsh and sarcastic in this remark, which, as it is

founded on a mistaken supposition gives me some just cause of complaint. When I lamented 'that my opportunities for obtaining information from correspondents had not been every where alike,' I had not the least intention of hinting that my letters had been treated with neglect; on the contrary, I with pride and pleasure acknowledge, that *every* application met with the most liberal returns. I simply meant to say, that my connections for this purpose were less extensive than I could have wished. In fact, I hung out no begging-box to the public at large, but confined my applications to my friends; and as none of them have charged me with unreasonable expectations, I think no other persons have a right so to do.

For the compliment in your concluding paragraph I think myself obliged to you. The application of it, however, is to show that I have misapplied my abilities, such as they are, both inasmuch as I have employed myself in tasks unworthy of them, and as I have failed to perform some things that might be expected of me. I can very well bear censure conveyed by so handsome an implication, and with respect to the first point I silently submit myself to the judgment of the public. But with regard to the second, which involves somewhat of a charge of violated obligation, especially as it is directed to a *particular work*, I wish, Gentlemen, to give you some exculpatory information. The volume of *Biographical Memoirs of Medicine*, which I published in 1780, small as it was, cost me more time and labour than any thing I have undertaken; yet so completely did it fail in interesting my brethren of the faculty, that it was a pecuniary loss to my bookseller, and no apparent gain of reputation to myself. From this event I should readily have concluded that I had greatly erred either in my plan, or in its execution, had not the opinion of some of my friends, together with that of some professed critics (among whom I have always considered you as holding a respectable rank), supported me a little against the conclusions of disappointment. However, such being the fact, I conceive myself sufficiently justified in dropping the further prosecution of that design. You know, however, Gentlemen, that I have not ceased from time to time to employ my pen professionally; and I believe you will, from experience, allow that it is not a necessary consequence of the *parerga* in which I occasionally engage, to preclude the pursuit of more serious topics.

But of myself enough: I shall hope from your candour the insertion of this letter in your next Number, and remain, Gentlemen, respectfully

Yours, &c.

Yarmouth, July
5th, 1789.

J. AIKIN:

WE are sorry that we have given our respectable correspondent any pain; but, on referring again to the passage in question, we perceive it to be so equivocal, that we doubt not many have fallen

fallen into the same error with ourselves, and this public explanation may consequently have some good effect. We must own indeed, that we felt some pain, perhaps some indignation, at seeing Dr. Aikin, whose abilities we have often witnessed, engaged in trifling 'parerga.' We blamed his inattention to his own character, and we blamed the world for a disregard to his merits. The work, which in the moment occurred to us, we know to be a production of much labour, and to deserve much praise: we can only express our regret that the world in general did not think the same.

WE have received the letter from 'one who was formerly a pupil of Dr. Monro;' and are well pleased to find that we have, in his opinion, 'sufficiently and effectually answered all the remarks in Dr. Monro's Appendix,' and are much to be 'commended on this, as on all other occasions, where we freely point out the *defects* or *errors* of authors.' He charges us, however, with 'unfairness, ignorance, or disingenuity,' for omitting Dr. Monro's name in our Index and Contents. It was omitted we confess, and we felt the omission severely, by the difficulty of finding the article. But there could be no design in it, for the Index-maker and the Reviewers are as distinct personages as Alexander the Great and Alexander the Copper-smith: we are convinced that they are not even personally known to each other, and could never feel any share of that momentary ebullition which so severe and so pointed an attack would necessarily produce. But supposing the Reviewer had compiled the Index, we hope every member of our corps would be superior to a little, mean, and paltry revenge. If Dr. Monro again appears as an author, our conduct will show that we harbour no resentment. His anger evaporated in scolding; ours wore out by a mild and attentive examination of the ground we had trodden, and which we had the satisfaction of finding firm and secure. Our Index to the last volume was a new experiment, and, like all other new attempts, in some degree imperfect. We hope to profit in this and some other circumstances by our correspondent's remarks, which we shall carefully attend to; but we think he does not make the proper allowance for a smaller type and the more condensed form.

WE must acknowledge the receipt of an article said to be written by a Lady, who has offered us some assistance; but though it would gratify us highly to seat a lady at the head of our board, yet we must be allowed to remark, that her coup d'essai does not give us a very high opinion of her impartiality. The article sent to us is not even so much guarded as to be styled 'Puff oblique.'

OUR other Correspondents shall not be neglected; but in this moment of hurry and labour, they will be so obliging as to permit us to defer the consideration of their *favours*.



T. H. E. CRITICAL REVIEW.

For AUGUST, 1789.

Arthur, or, the Northern Enchantment. A Poetical Romance. In Seven Books. By Richard Hole, L. L. B. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Robinsons.

BLACKMORE, by his double epic on this hero, has been doubly 'damned to fame;' but Mr. Hole seems not to have been repressed by this accumulated misfortune, from selecting Arthur as 'the subject of his verse,' or from owning himself to be the author. As we are on the ground of romance, we may be allowed to remark, that he seems to be the favoured knight by whom this difficult adventure is to be achieved; or, in other words, to be the poet by whom Arthur may be celebrated without adding to the examples of the bathos. He is not afraid to introduce his hero in a storm, as sir Richard, if we recollect rightly, has done in his first epic; but there the resemblance drops. The scenery and images which occur in the first book are extremely picturesque, sublime, and terrible.

If Arthur be a suspected personage, whose existence may be questioned, and in whose history facts and fables are so closely intermingled, that even his admirers doubt whether they have not raised a phantom into real life, this poem is of a cast equally equivocal. It is neither the *Iliad* nor *Orlando Furioso*, but appears to partake of the nature of each, while in its milder scenery and more polished language it departs from both, and we suspect Virgil to have been in the author's eye. He declares it in his preface, to be 'an imitation of the old metrical romance, with some of its harsher features softened and modified;' and we know not in what other words to characterise it. It is too desultory to be considered as a regular epic, yet too well connected and too important in its action to deserve the humbler title of a tale, or of a romance. The ideas of fairies, ghosts, witches, necromancers, and the gloomy 'diabolisms' which possessed the minds of our unpolished forefathers, have indeed ceased to maintain any influence over a more reflecting race, and scarcely at present affect the weak and illiterate. Yet we carry so much of the superstition of the nursery, the veteres avia, in our breasts, that, when displayed in elegant numbers, and decorated

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H by

by the brilliant colours of a glowing fancy, these tales will still fascinate our imagination, and carry away the reason captive. We resign ourselves with Ariosto and Spenser to a pleasing and avowed delusion, while we look coldly on historical narrative, for what is there in the events or in the catastrophe, that we knew not before. If our author entertained this idea, and it is no improbable one, we can easily excuse him for hurrying us away into the regions of imagination, and leading us to '*the old days of the king Artbure,*' when

'*All was this land fullid of Fayry.*'

If we examine this equivocal child of Homer and Ariosto more closely, we shall find the manners most nearly to resemble those described by the Italian poet, while the boldness of the imagery and the uniform loftiness of the style show the author to be no mean proficient in the school of Homer. The great hinge on which the story turns, is this: The Weird Sisters, the Parcæ of the North, dimly descrying through the veil of futurity, that Arthur's succeeding to the throne of Britain and union with Merlin's daughter, would be fatal to the Gothic nations and their religion, are said to

'Have weaved with artful malice to impede
What heaven's eternal wisdom has decreed,
Round Inogen's and Arthur's natal hour
Spells of dark import and pernicious power.'

One of the difficulties in which they are involved is, that though 'whosoever married Inogen, should from that hour reign supreme in Britain, and subdue all his enemies; yet that her life should be a continued scene of misery, unless she should fly from the man she most dearly loved, and he by whom she was beloved should reject her.' Hengist likewise, the Turnus of the poem, has impenetrable armour, and, like Macbeth, 'bears a charmed life.' Another difficulty is, that unless the two bravest of the Scandinavian leaders should 'plant in each other's sides the mortal wound,' Arthur would never reign in Britain. Merlin's supernatural wand is to oppose the malice of these malignant beings.

In the first book, the hero of the tale, like Æneas or Blackmore's Arthur, is wrecked on the coast of one of the western islands. The descriptions we have said are bold and picturesque. In the second, Merlin relates the events previous to the opening of the poem, a necessary circumstance, if Horace's advice be pursued. Several characteristic as well as moral reflections are introduced in this narrative: the following on his return with Inogen to scenes 'by time endeared,' and the description subjoined is no unfavourable specimen of it:

'Thro'

Thro' various toils our calm retreat we found,
 Still, as of old, with nature's blessings crown'd.
 The gurgling rill as softly urg'd its way ;
 The birds as blithly warbled on the spray :
 As sweet the blushing flowers perfum'd the air ;
 The hills as verdant, and the meads as fair.

' But ah ! our minds were changed—to them no more
 These scenes appear'd as in the tranquil hour.
 In murmurs harsh the rill was heard to flow ;
 The feather'd songsters seem'd to mock our woe :
 Each object rose unlovely to the view,
 For all was ting'd with sorrow's sable hue.

' It chanc'd, one morn in deep reflection lost,
 I many a hill, and silent valley crost.
 At length the sun gain'd his meridian height,
 And scarce my feeble limbs sustain'd their weight.
 Before my view a gloomy forest rose :
 To quench my thirst, and in its shades repose,
 I thither bent my way ; for thence the sound
 Of waters struck my ear : th' untrodden bound
 I slowly pierce, and now their view obtain,
 As from th' impending cliff they pour'd amain.
 The cooling wave the pangs of thirst allays,
 And round my head the breeze refreshing plays.
 An aged oak beside the torrent stood,
 Of size immense—the monarch of the wood.
 O'er the green dell its boughs were widely thrown,
 And seem'd to make a forest all their own.
 The trees, that round their leafy honors rear'd,
 Like lowly shrubs on barren heaths appear'd
 When mated with its height—in the cool shade
 I lay reclin'd ; a mossy stone my head
 Supported, for around in order plac'd
 The lonely spot a rocky circle grac'd.'

The vision which occurred on this spot is high'y poetical ;
 and the account of the Druidical sacrifices, we suspect, have
 too secure a foundation in truth.

In the third book, Arthur quits Ebuda in an enchanted bark :
 Ivar, an amiable youth, wishes to accompany him, but is not
 permitted. He lands in the bay of Ituna (Solway Frith), and
 the bark, with his conductor Merlin, vanishes from his sight.
 This whole book is full of romantic incidents : spells, prodigies,
 and enchantments attend us in every step, and it is more ex-
 travagantly, perhaps more pleasingly wild, than any other in
 the poem : yet few of the incidents, we believe, are new.

On waking from his repose, where visionary scenes of Bri-
 tain's future glory had been displayed, a suit of enchanted armour
 and his favourite steed appear. His course is through a dreary

H 2 country,

country, desolated by his enemies, till a dark impenetrable forest rises before him. As he travels by its side, a pillar of black marble attracts his notice, on which Merlin's advice is inscribed, concluding with—'Be circumspect, be brave.' He enters the wood, and reaches a castle, where another Sinon, or in the language of romance rather than of the epos, Urda, under the disguise of a shepherd, warns him not to approach the castle beset with spells: he rejects the council, when 'the dæmon stands confest', and defies both his and Merlin's power. The charm thus dissolved, the tempting vale through which she advised him to pass appears to be a horrid and destructive chasm. At the castle he arrived, blew the horn at the gate, and Hengist appeared. In the description of the battle, and of the castle, when Hengist, who could not be wounded, was hurried away in a fog by Urda, Mr. Hole seems to have strained his poetical talents to their fullest bent, and we have scarcely seen more animated descriptions, more vivid imagery, or more genuine poetry. The hero saw

' — Th' extended walls, the turrets crown'd
With hideous objects: wheeling wide around,
The screeching owl, the raven of the night,
With notes ill-omen'd urge their crowded flight.
Harpies obscene their direful forms unfold;
And dragons arm'd in scales of burnish'd gold,
Beat the resounding air with out-stretch'd wings,
Like rushing storms, and shake their pointed stings.
Sulphureous torrents roll the moat around
In liquid flame; the boiling waves resound,
And lash the rugged walls: before his eyes
The bridge, the portal fades: black vapours rise,
And fiery flakes shoot thro' the dusky skies.

' Infernal spirits on the walls appear,
Here the sword blazes, there the threatening spear,
Here, like a meteor, level'd at his heart,
Gleams on the bending string the flame-tip'd dart.
From each red eye-ball glanc'd the sparks of ire;
Each dismal front seem'd scath'd with livid fire:
With wrath o'ercast, and horror's blackest hue;
While wreathing on the winds their snaky tresses flew.'

We think the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth lines have seldom been equalled for bold and picturesque imagery. The etymology of Stonehenge, from Hengist's castle supposed to have been in the site of this celebrated remnant of antiquity, is fanciful, but at least as probable as any other account. The following description of Lionel and Cradoc, prisoners in this castle, may have been copied from Ugolino in Dante; but there is much originality in that of the work before us:

' Their

' Their voices well the British hero knew,
 And in his eyes swell'd pity's pearly dew.
 Their chains unbound, he led them t'ward the light,
 But ah ! what horrid objects met his sight !
 Their hair, like elf-locks round their shoulders clung :
 Each limb was weaken'd, every nerve unstrung.
 Pale, meagre famine fate in either face—
 Extinct the manly form, and martial grace.
 In hollow sockets dimly roll'd their eyes ;
 Their lab'ring bosoms heav'd with frequent sighs.
 With staggering steps they totter o'er the ground,
 And gain at length their prison's utmost bound ;
 Then dropping on the verdant turf, inhale
 The long-lost sweetness of the freshening gale.'

Why did the author disgust the cooler critic by changing the
 tense in the last lines ? Their dungeon also was like that of
 Ugolino, and their behaviour was suitable to their situation :

' Dank was the floor ; our limbs strong fetters bound ;
 And toads and loathsome reptiles crawl'd around.

" Here meet your doom ! the furious Henrich cried—
 Here pay the forfeit of presumptuous pride !"
 When the gate clos'd, and the last struggling ray
 Of light was vanish'd ; when we heard the key
 Turn on the grating ward, what wild despair
 Possess our souls ? we wildly rave, our hair,
 Our flesh we strive to rend ; our chains deny
 Th' attempt : then still in silent grief we lie ;
 Wishing that fate our heavy eyes would close,
 And weight of sorrow sink us to repose.
 Repose, not such alas ! our souls deliv'd,
 We find ; with strong conflicting passions tir'd,
 Sleep seals our eyes ; but ah ! tho' seal'd our eyes,
 Terrific objects to our sight arise :
 Th' unquiet mind's perturbed brood : a train
 Of nameless horror and chimeras vain !

' We wake, and rage again, our bosom rends,
 And frenzy reigns ; but soon the tear descends
 In silent anguish Tho' our wish was death,
 Yet nature taught us to prolong our breath,
 E'en in our own desite : but nought t' assuage
 Thirl's burning pangs we found, and hunger's rage,
 Save noisome weeds nurs'd by a scanty tide,
 Out-welling from the cavern's rocky side,
 That lay'd the muddy soil—thus, manv a day,
 Tho' time we mark'd not, in despair we lay.'

The knights are hospitably entertained by Ebrank, the father
 of Lionel's mistress ; and they soon separate : Arthur, as direct-
 ed by Merlin, to the British forces in Cambria, the others to the
 auxiliaries whom they had brought from Galicia.

In the fourth book, we find Launcelot in the bay of Menevia, expecting Arthur, and the recital of the preceding events introduced in this part, though necessary to the conduct of the poem, is not artificially conducted. Arthur's auxiliary heroes are described with great spirit, and they join in a resolution to revenge the prince's supposed death. The Scandinavian leaders, Hengist excepted, are introduced sitting at a banquet, or as Mr. Hole's favourite Ossian would say, 'rejoicing in the strength of the shell' in the royal hall at Carlisle. The speech of Urda, who appears to them in the form of Odin their warrior god, is animated and characteristic. Their religious rites, the contention between Hacon and Valdemar, their march, and every circumstance, seem exactly appropriated. The author appears to be no mean proficient in northern antiquities.

The apostrophe to ambition, which opens the fifth book, is poetical and just. The battle is fought with spirit, and the little digression concerning the Laplanders, breaks the scene of horror with much skill. We are glad, however, to meet Arthur again; we had almost forgotten the hero. The Scandinavian manners seem to be still preserved with care, except in the conclusion of the northern bard's consolatory speech to Hacon on the death of his son. It does not, we believe, appear, that, though according to Ossian, the *Celts* thought the departed spirit would wander round low marshes and lonely vales, nor ascend without the assistance of an epicidium sung by a bard to the halls of the mighty, the Goths entertained the same sentiments; or that it was usual for *them* to sing one over the tomb of a fallen hero. The idea of appeasing a shade by the death of an enemy, was also not a Gothic one, and can only be apologised for by the ferocious and savage character of Hacon. We ought, however, to add, that the three Scandinavian leaders, though all brave and enterprising, are strongly discriminated: the generosity and tenderness which seem occasionally to break forth from Valdemar, distinguish him from the dark and vindictive Hacon, as well as from the insolent and impetuous, but artful Hengist.

In the fifth book, we are again hurried away to

'Lapland, Zembla, or the Lord knows where.'

The winter-scene with which it is introduced, is taken, with the addition of some highly poetical images, from Olaus Magnus' description of Biarmia. In this desolate region, in a cave never seen by mortal, two of the weird sisters perform their incantations. The speech of Urda, who approaches them, is sublime and terrible; she gives Hengist, still in a swoon to their care, and predicts that 'his sword shall be imbrued in royal blood.' The cave, on his recovery, is changed to a Gothic hall of exquisite beauty,

beauty, and he expresses his indignation at being deceived by the weird sisters; but they appear, and grant his request to assume the form of Arthur; and on this precipice our author seemed to tremble: he escapes, however, with some dexterity:

‘ We grant thy daring wish ! – they swift reply ;
 In semblance of his radiant arms to shine ;
 T’ assume his mien, his look, his voice be thine.
 To guide thy course to those enchanted bowers
 That hold conceal’d the beauteous maid, is ours ;
 But that alone—If thou successful prove,
 She quit her dwelling, and repay thy love,
 Then Odin’s race shall sway the British throne—
 But know, the danger’s great, th’ event unknown.
 Futurity’s dark vapours intervene.
 Elude our fight, and blot the coming scene.’

We believe this ignorance of futurity is perfectly consonant to the received opinions respecting these northern Parcæ, whose malevolence is supposed to be sometimes counteracted by circumstances, sometimes by superior powers. In pursuance of their will, he is conveyed in a cloud-formed chariot to the bower of Inogen, the heroine whom we had been long anxious to know. She is admirably described as well as her bower, and we are lost ‘ in the delightful land of faerie.’ But a passage alluding to the fairies themselves, destroys the illusion, and annihilates what our imagination had almost realised:

‘ Oft as beneath their shade deep-musing stray’d,
 At night, or dewy eve, the British maid,
 When the bright moon adorn’d heaven’s spangled plain,
 Before her fight arose the fairy train,
 In white plum’d helms, and vests of splendid hue,
 Cloud-form’d, and deck’d with quivering gems of dew,
 And while, to crown the revels of the night,
 Obedient glow-worms lend their living light,
 Their sweet-toned lyres the little minstrels sweep,
 And the charm’d winds in placid silence sleep.
 A sprightly band, accordant to the sound,
 With measur’d steps in circles print the ground.
 At blush of morn they vanish from the view,
 And night’s pale empress wrapt in shades pursue.
 ‘ E’en in these latter days, by forest green,
 The swain benighted oft their sports has seen.
 Thus potent fancy can the sense enchain,
 Form, and embody forth her airy train
 In simplest minds, and give to vacant eyes,
 What sterner Wisdom to her sons denies,
 Impressions sweet and strange ! alike her sway
 Th’ inventive bard, and humble swain obey.’

The interview between Inogen and Hengist, with her irresolution when urged to quit the delightful bower, is happily described : the following comparison is, we believe, original :

‘ As some pellucid current that divides
The flower-embroider’d valley, while it glides
By the pale lily, or the blushing rose,
Now shines in whiteness, now with crimson glows ;
Thus varying colours clothe the virgin’s cheek,
And the strong conflict of her soul bespeak.’

The death of Cador, by which the prediction of Hengist’s embroiling his sword in royal blood is verified ; Inogen’s behaviour in consequence of it ; the combat between Hengist and Valdemar, in which the latter is enraged at the base and un-knightly behaviour of his *supposed* greatest enemy, for Hengist had still the form of Arthur, and the other by the apparently improper interference and menaces of his former friend ; their mutual fury, which renders them unmindful of the dæmon’s predictions, and urges them blindfold to the fall they were forewarned to shun, are incidents truly dramatic, and conducted with much address. Inogen flies ; but it was foretold that she should fly from *Arthur*, not from his *semblance*. In the next book indeed she disclaims all affection for him, and threatens to destroy herself if he dares approach her ; but she *does not fly*.

In the seventh book, we again meet with Arthur, whom we left at the end of the fifth in pursuit of Valdemar. At the approach of night he takes shelter in a cottage, and the description of its peaceful inhabitants seems introduced to relieve the mind by contrasted images. It is in many respects pleasing, but we shall transcribe only a short specimen of the author’s milder descriptive talents : it is a picture of the morning :

‘ Faint streaks of light the purpled east illumine,
And westward rolls the slow decreasing gloom.
With varied screams around Conagra’s height
The birds of ocean urge their eddying flight.
Some o’er the untruffled main disporting sweep
On outstretch’d wings, some mid the briny deep
With pinions clos’d fall headlong ; and convey
Exulting to their young the scaly prey.
Some bolder beams, as o’er the hills is borne
The vapor dim, its curling tides adorn
With golden hints : meanwhile th’ enlivening gale
With shadowy waves o’ercasts the grassy vale ;
And the rill bursting from the rocky height
Winds thro’ the narrow dell in floating light.’

After some adventures, our hero meets, we know not how, with Ellena, the attendant of Inogen. Her escape, and various other circumstances which followed her elopement with the
semblance

semblance of Arthur, raise his jealousy and aggravate his distress: he is urged to vengeance, and pursues the course Hengist had taken.—The story then returns to Inogen, but these changes are scarcely allowable in any poem, even distantly related to the epic, though countenanced by the desultory manner of Ariosto, whose ‘wood notes wild,’ Mr. Hole might think preferable to those learned by art. Inogen, however, having quitted the forest, and perceiving her strength to fail, ‘seeks repose beneath the grateful shade.’ Hacon and his bards fix on this spot to intercept Sweno, The Norwegian king, suitably to his barbarous character, having discovered, wishes to destroy her to satiate his own vengeance, when she is rescued by a youthful knight in his first essay at arms; and this knight we find to be Arthur’s former friend Ivar, with whose amiable and generous character in the first and third books we were highly pleased. This seemed to us a happy idea, and it was no less so to bring Arthur to the spot, while she bent weeping over her brave deliverer, who was grievously wounded in her defence. A scene of recrimination ensues, and the last intricacy of the plot is unravelled, except that Inogen *does not fly*, with much skill. The difficulties would not soon have been cleared had not Merlin assisted: it was truly a dignus vindice nodus. His speech, which appears a very characteristic one, concludes the poem.

Such is the modern Arthur, an epic, born in these degenerate days, when we little expected the task of criticising a poem of this first class, and when we could scarcely find sufficient room to draw even the most imperfect outline of a proper criticism. To every friend of the Muses it will afford great entertainment. The story is agreeably wild and pleasingly romantic: the conduct displays much imagination, and the images are in general splendid and picturesque; the events interesting; the diction polished and musical. The imagery may appear to be too frequently borrowed from Ossian; but we may acquit Mr. Hole of the charge of concealed plagiarism, since he frequently owns his obligation to his former friend.

We have said, in the course of this article, that Mr. Hole is no mean proficient in northern antiquities. This opinion is fully evinced by the many judicious and learned notes interspersed, which seemed almost to suggest the suspic on which was entertained respecting Vathek, that the work was written to introduce the notes. Indeed, in this romantic ground, he seems never to think himself secure, unless he produces good authority, which makes his poem no less instructive than entertaining: though a dealer in poetic fictions only, might exclaim

‘Must we swear to the truth of a song?’

If we had not extended our article so far, we should have given

given some account of these notes, as well as of the very judicious and learned preface with which the poem is introduced. At present we must conclude our article with a specimen only, and we shall take, without any selection, that which lies open to our view :

* Of this ancient custom an instance was given p. 121. An older one occurs in Plutarch's life of Theseus : who mentions that his supposed tomb in the island of Scyros being opened by command of Cimon, bones of a vast size, a spear pointed with brass, and a sword, were found in it. In Ezekiel, c. xxxii. v. 27. it is said of Mesech and Tubal, that "they shall not lie with the mighty which are gone down to hell with their weapons of war, and they have laid their swords under their heads," &c. that is, they shall not be buried with arms like brave men. It has been conjectured, that by Mesech and Tubal, the Scythians or some neighbouring people were meant ; and it is generally thought that the Grecians were descended from that numerous and wide-extended race. The heaps of stone or earth, of which so many still remain among us, accumulated in honour of distinguished leaders, and pillars of stone erected to their memory, was a custom not peculiar to the Goths, but prevailed among the Jews likewise, and other ancient nations. It is particularly noticed in the second book of Samuel, c. xviii. v. 17. 18. And in the Hercules Furens of Euripides, Theseus assures his friend that the Athenians shall offer sacrifices, and erect heaps of stones to his memory.—Θυσιασι, λαυνοισι τ' ἐξογκομασι.

A General History of Music, from the earliest Ages to the present Period. By Charles Burney, Mus. D. F. R. S. Vols. III. and IV. 4to. 2l. 2s. in Boards. Robinsons.

DR. Burney's first volume of this very learned and elaborate work was published in 1776; the second followed it in 1782* ; and we have received the third and fourth after an interval very little longer than that which intervened between the first and the second. If we were to judge of the time that has elapsed by the wishes of those whose taste or profession leads them to these studies, we should call it long ; yet, when we consider the number of authors, not only to be consulted but read, and the great quantity of matter to be arranged, we can only wonder how the author could find opportunities to complete his great work, amidst the duties and fatigues of a profession, which seem to exclude the possibility of constant application.

His researches, hitherto, have been in times which afforded

* The first volume was examined at great length in the XLI. volume of our Journal, in five different articles: the second occurs in our LIV. and LV. volumes, and is comprehended in four articles.

few materials that could be thoroughly understood or depended on; but now he is arrived in the age of modern music, while the multitude of authors have increased his labour, their clearness has lessened his difficulty, and he proceeds in his history, resting upon facts instead of trusting to conjecture. Though the subject of these volumes is music, yet it is divided into so many branches, that we have found it to be impossible to give our opinion in general terms; and as impossible, in our narrow limits, to accompany our author through his various disquisitions. We will therefore extract some passages, which may without injury be separated from those that precede and follow them; and upon these we shall offer some remarks as we proceed.

The third volume opens with an *Essay on Musical Criticism*, the introduction to which we will extract, as it goes upon principles that require not a practical knowledge of music to comprehend.

‘As music may be defined the art of pleasing by the succession and combination of agreeable sounds, every hearer has a right to give way to his feelings, and be pleased or dissatisfied without knowledge, experience, or the fiat of critics; but then he has certainly no right to insist on others being pleased or dissatisfied in the same degree. I can very readily forgive the man who admires a different music from that which pleases me, provided he does not extend his hatred or contempt of my favourite music to myself, and imagine that on the exclusive admiration of any one style of music, and a close adherence to it, all wisdom, taste, and virtue depend.

• Criticism in this art would be better taught by specimens of good composition and performance than by reasoning and speculation. But there is a certain portion of enthusiasm connected with a love of the fine arts, which bids defiance to every curb of criticism; and the poetry, painting, or music that leaves us on the ground, and does not transport us into the regions of imagination beyond the reach of cold criticism, may be correct, but is devoid of genius and passion. There is, however, a tranquil pleasure, short of a rapture, to be acquired from music, in which intellect and sensation are equally concerned; the analysis of this pleasure is, therefore, the subject of the present short *Essay*; which, it is hoped, will explain and apologise for the critical remarks which have been made in the course of this *History*, on the works of great masters, and prevent their being construed into pedantry and arrogance.

‘Indeed, musical criticism has been so little cultivated in our country, that its first elements are hardly known. In justice to the late Mr. Avison, it must be owned, that he was the first, and almost the only writer, who attempted it. But his judgment was warped by many prejudices. He exalted Rameau and Geminiani at the expence of Handel, and was a declared foe

due to modern German symphonies. There have been many treatises published on the art of musical composition and performance, but none to instruct ignorant lovers of music how to listen, or to judge for themselves. So various are musical styles, that it requires not only extensive knowledge, and long experience, but a liberal, enlarged, and candid mind, to discriminate and allow to each its due praise :

Nullius addictus jurare in verba magistri.

A critic should have none of the contractions and narrow partialities of such as can see but a small angle of the art ; of whom there are some so bewildered in fugues and complicated contrivances that they can receive pleasure from nothing but canonical answers, imitations, inversions, and counter-subjects ; while others are equally partial to light, simple, frivolous melody, regarding every species of artificial composition as mere pedantry and jargon. A chorus of Handel and a graceful opera song should not preclude each other : each has its peculiar merit ; and no one musical production can comprise the beauties of every species of composition. It is not unusual for disputants in all the arts, to reason without principles ; but this, I believe, happens more frequently in musical debates than any other. By principles, I mean the having a clear and precise idea of the constituent parts of a good composition, and of the principal excellencies of perfect execution. And it seems, as if the merit of musical productions, both as to composition and performance, might be estimated according to De Pile's steel-yard, or test of merit among painters. If a complete musical composition of different movements were analysed, it would perhaps be found to consist of some of the following ingredients : melody, harmony, modulation, invention, grandeur, fire, pathos, taste, grace, and expression ; while the executive part would require neatness, accent, energy, spirit, and feeling ; and, in a vocal performer, or instrumental, where the tone depends on the player, power, clearness, sweetness, brilliancy of execution in quick movements, and touching expression in slow.

‘ But as all these qualities are seldom united in one composer or player, the piece or performer that comprises the greatest number of these excellencies, and in the most perfect degree, is entitled to pre-eminence : though the production or performer that can boast of *any* of these constituent qualities cannot be pronounced totally devoid of merit. In this manner, a composition, by a kind of chemical process, may be decomposed as well as any other production of art or nature.’

The mention of De Pile's steel-yard brings to our remembrance a ballancing of the merits of different musicians, on the principles of the ingenious Frenchman : it was published about seven years since, in a Magazine.

After mentioning the necessity of studying that particular branch of music we are to criticize, he says,

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'To judge minutely of *singing*, for instance, requires study and experience in that particular art. Indeed, I have long suspected some very great instrumental performers of not sufficiently feeling or respecting real good singing.'

This observation is strongly confirmed by a trait in the musical character of the late Mr. Gainsborough, who had certainly no relish for vocal music, and was only pleased by instrumental performance.

Dr. Burney commences the historical part of this volume, by a continuation from vol. II. of the State of Music in the reign of Henry VIII. from thence proceeds to its state in Edward VIth's time, and gives a list of the musicians of this period, at the head of which he places Dr. Tye. We doubt not of there being some good reasons for this preference; but we know of no composition of Tye that is so masterly and pleasing as the well-known anthem of 'I call and cry,' by Tallis. We think some parts of Farrant's 'Benedictus,' to be neither 'dry, nor uninteresting.'

The reign of queen Mary offers nothing of importance. Of that of queen Elizabeth, he says,

'In speaking of choral music during the long and prosperous reign of queen Elizabeth, our nation's honour seems to require a more diffuse detail than at any other time: for, perhaps, we never had so just a claim to equality with the rest of Europe, where music was the most successfully cultivated, as at this period; when indeed there was but little melody any where. Yet, with respect to harmony, canon, fugue, and such laboured and learned contrivances as were then chiefly studied and admired, we can produce such proofs of great abilities in the compositions of our countrymen, as candid judges of their merit must allow to abound in every kind of excellence that was then known or expected.'

The musical anecdotes of this reign are many of them curious and interesting: in these days of freedom and liberty, what shall we think of pressing boys for the service of the royal chapels? But, after all, perhaps, it is not worse than another application of the same violence, which still subsists.

The author gives a clear account of the first introduction of psalmody into the reformed churches, which our limits will not permit us to extract. The tune of the hundredth psalm, which will ever be admired, is the composition of Claude le Jeune.— But we like the modern bass better:

'Lovers of mere harmony might receive great pleasure from metrical psalmody, in parts, devoid as it is of musical measure, and syllabic quantity, if it were well performed; but that so seldom happens, that the greatest blessing to lovers of music in a parish church, is to have an organ in it sufficiently powerful to render
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the voices of the clerk, and of those who join in his *out-cry*, wholly inaudible: indeed all reverence for the psalms seems to be lost by the wretched manner in which they are usually sung; for, instead of promoting piety and edification, they only excite contempt and ridicule in the principal part of the congregation, who disdain to join, though they are obliged to hear, this indecorous jargon. There can be no objection to sober and well disposed villagers meeting, at their leisure hours, to practice psalmody together, in private, for their recreation; but it seems as if their public performance might be dispensed with during divine service, unless they had acquired a degree of excellence far superior to what is usually met with in parish-churches, either in town or country, where there is no organ.

From psalmody the author proceeds to the other species of composition, and seems to think that the English musicians of this age were superior to all their contemporaries in other countries. To support his opinion, he gives specimens of their abilities, in which the compositions of Tallis evidently claim a preference. He mentions Bird also with great respect; in this we in general join, with the exception of his service in D minor, which we think the most dry and unmeaning of any thing that can be called music. He enumerates many other English composers of this age, among the rest Milton's father, and gives examples of their music, most of which have long since ceased to exist, except as curiosities, unperformed, and indeed almost unknown.

We cannot follow the author even through the general heads of his history, much less can we be expected to descend to the many particulars of the various composers he enumerates, though they are for the most part full of curious information. He has collected the different passages in Shakspeare's plays which allude to music, and, where they needed it, explains them; but there are one or two inaccuracies, which we will take the liberty to correct. Speaking of the *Tempest*, he says that 'it has lately been performed, more as a musical masque than as an opera or play, at Drury-Lane, to the music of the late T. Linley, as it used to be to that of Dr. Arne and others.' We do not apprehend that Mr. T. Linley did any thing to this opera, but set instrumental parts to the quartet of 'Where the bee sucks,' &c. nor were these instrumental parts more than the double of the song parts. It cannot be information to any musical reader, that the original tune was Arne's, which was made into a quartet, with some additions, by Jackson of Exeter. In the author's quotation from the *Winter's Tale*, he should have mentioned the very pretty trio of Boyce, made on the words, 'Now farewell, for I must go,' &c. We the rather blame the omission, because we think it has great merit as an original melody. A page or two before he introduces Shakspeare, he quotes

quotes a stage-direction from Gammar Gurton's Needle, in which is the phrase, 'Pype up your fiddles:' Dr. Burney cannot reconcile *piping* with *fiddling*. It is undoubtedly incorrect; but, in his researches among the records of barbarous times, he must have remarked, that our forefathers made no scruple of such improprieties; and that, by correcting them, we lose the language and the manners of the age. Shakspeare's *sea* of troubles, in Hamlet, has been in some editions corrected into *siege* of troubles, to preserve the integrity of the metaphor. 'Or to take arms against a *sea* of troubles.' The critic thought it improper to take arms against a *sea*, and altered it to *siege*. But, if we have not room enough for the immediate subject of these volumes, we have none to spare for incidental criticisms, though we could show reason for dissenting from the ingenious author in some of his explanations. As the thread of our remarks on the History is now interrupted, we will take this opportunity of turning a few pages back, where we have the following note.

'Writing in eight real parts, *fugato*, in this close manner, is perhaps more difficult than in the same number of parts, a *duccori*. As the exercise for the degree with which I was honoured at Oxford, was required, by the statutes, to be composed in eight real parts; previous to supplicating for it in that university, besides the anthem, consisting of solo, verse, and choral movements, accompanied by instruments, I prepared a vocal chorus, in eight real parts, in the same full and rigid manner as Orl. Gibbons's "O clap your hands together," before I had seen that or any other of the same kind. It was, however, not performed: as the late worthy music-professor, Dr. William Hayes, said that though this movement alone would have well entitled me to a doctor's degree, it would not be wanting, the choruses of the anthem being sufficiently full to satisfy him and the university of my abilities to write in many parts.

'Upon shewing Mr. C. P. Emanuel Bach the score of the exercise that was performed at Oxford, 1769, he honoured it so far as to beg a copy of it, and afterwards had it performed, vocally and instrumentally, in St. Catharine's church at Ham-burgh, under his own direction, 1773. It was repeatedly performed at Oxford, after it had fulfilled its original destination; and once the principal soprano part had the advantage of being exquisitely sung by Miss Linley, now Mrs. Sheridan. It is hoped that the reader will pardon this *egotism*, which has been extorted from me by occasional and sinister assertions, "that I neither liked nor had studied church music."

The assertions are rather more '*snifter*' than the author is aware of. We never heard that Dr. Burney had any exclusive dislike to church music: it is not this or that style of music the

the doctor is accused of not studying; it is because he has never given to the public an instance of his abilities as a composer, in any style. We give the charge home and plainly, in the hope and belief that it will soon be refuted, and by the only *effectual* method. The exercise for the degree of doctor of music, here published, will not be considered as a refutation. We wish that, in a future edition of this great and learned work, the whole note may be erased: we also recommend the omission of three or four lines in a note, p. 92, which are in every view beneath the author to write. We recollect the passage in the Thirty Letters very well; and, if he will look at it, he will see, that it was the *vulgarity*, not the *mirth*, of the catch that was objected to.

It is with great pleasure that we quit these spots: we will now turn to the brighter parts of this lumen. After enumerating the musicians in the reign of James I. who seem rather inferior to their predecessors, he goes on to appreciate the merits of those in the time of the unhappy Charles.

— This prince, says he, however his judgment, or that of his counsellors, may have misled him in the more momentous concerns of government, appears to have been possessed of an invariable good taste in all the fine arts; a quality which, in less morose and fanatical times, would have endeared him to the most enlightened part of the nation: but now his patronage of poetry, painting, architecture, and music, was ranked among the deadly sins, and his passion for the works of the best artists in the nation, profane, pagan, popish, idolatrous, dark, and damnable. As to the expences of his government, for the levying which he was driven to illegal and violent expedients, if compared with what has been since peaceably and cheerfully granted to his successors, his extravagance in supporting the public splendor and amusements of his court, will be found more moderate, and perhaps more innocent, than that of *secret service* in later times; and however gloomy state-reformers may execrate this prince, it would be ungrateful, in professors of any of the fine arts, to lose all reverence for the patron of Ben Jonson, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and Dr. Child.

We honour the author for his warmth in speaking of Charles, who was undoubtedly the greatest patron of genius of any sovereign who had gone before him. The painter had the most, and the musician the least genius of the four artists above mentioned. Of Lawes, we have the honour of thinking the same as Dr. Burney; but the measure in that song he has inserted of this composer, puts us rather in mind of Dr. Greene's song of Fair Sally loved a bonny Sailor, than the ballad of Harry Carey.

Music, at this time, partakes of the commercial spirit which animates all nations. The teaching it, as an accomplishment;

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the making of instruments; the printing and copying compositions, not only gives bread but riches to thousands all over Europe. England has much more of this trade than any other country, and it is a trade that has lately been produced, in consequence of the influx of riches and their attendant, luxury; but

‘ During the most tranquil part of Charles’s reign, it seems as if musicians must have chiefly subsisted on the household and chapel establishments, the munificence of their sovereign, and private patronage of the great; as, in summer, no such places as Vauxhall, Ranelagh, or other public gardens, furnished them with employment, or afforded them an opportunity of displaying their talents; and in winter, there were no public concerts, either in the capital, or in provincial towns; and, except the theatres, which employed but small bands, there seem to have been no public means of subsistence for singers out of the church, or, except organists, for instrumental performers any where. Luxury was now less diffused through the kingdom than in subsequent times; for, in proportion as commerce has been extended, individuals have become rich, while the state has been impoverished. Nothing renders men less parsimonious and circumspect in their expences than a sudden and unexpected influx of ready money. Our ancestors, whose income was circumscribed, had little to spare for new modes and expensive pleasures. The great were munificent, but the rest were necessarily economical.’

The author afterwards observes, that

‘ There was but little instrumental music of any kind printed during this period; and, for keyed-instruments, nothing appeared from the time that *Parthenia* was engraved, till 1657, when a book of lessons for the virginal was published in the names of Dr. Bull, Orlando Gibbons, Rogers, and others. At a time when all other instrumental music was so easy and simple, as to appear now perfectly artless and insipid, the extreme complication and difficulty of all the music that was composed for the organ and virginal, is truly marvellous; and, indeed, though frequent complaints are made concerning the difficulty of the harpsichord and piano-forte music of our times, it may be asserted, with the utmost truth, that it has been simplified and rendered more practicable in every part of Europe, during the present century, while compositions for almost every other instrument are daily rendered more difficult.’

This observation upon the old and present character of music for the harpsichord is perfectly just: might not the complexity of the ancient lessons arise from the mistaken idea of employing every finger to enrich the harmony? We remember a reply made by the late Mr. Butler, to some extravagant encomiasts on the performance of old Sebastian Bach—‘ That gives me no idea of playing: depend upon it, he was a *soul cramming* performer.’

The musicians which appeared during the Interregnum were, for the most part, of no account.

‘ During this last year of the Usurpation was published “ The Division Violist, or an Introduction to the playing upon a Ground, by Christ. Simpson,” a musician extremely celebrated for his skill in the practice of his art, and abilities on his particular instrument. The base-viol, or viol da gamba, was in such general favour during the last century, that almost all the first musicians of this country, whose names are come down to us, were performers upon it, and composed pieces purposely to shew its powers; but particularly Cuperario, William Lawes, Jenkins, Dr. Colman, Lupo, Mico, and Loofemore. But this instrument, like the lute, without which no concert could subsist, was soon after so totally banished, that its form and construction were scarcely known, till the arrival of Abel in England, whose taste, knowledge, and expression upon it were so exquisite, that, instead of renovating its use, they seem to have kept lovers of music at an awful distance from the instrument, and in utter despair of ever approaching such excellence. The instrument itself, however, was so nasal, that this great musician, with all his science and power of hand, could not prevent his most enthusiastic admirers from lamenting that he had not, early in life, applied himself to the violoncello.

‘ But if its general use had continued, or were restored, this book of Simpson, from the universal change of taste and style of every species of music, would be of but little use to a student on that instrument now; when rapid divisions, of no other merit than the difficulty of executing them, have been totally supplanted by vocal expression, learned modulation, and that rich harmony to which the number of its strings is favourable. Rough, but warm encomiastic verses, are prefixed to Simpson’s works by Dr. Colman, John Jenkins, Matthew Lock, and others, which only shew with what perishable materials musical fame is built.’

We apprehend that the Loofemore here mentioned was a maker of instruments as well as a performer. There are some nasal harpsichords of his, to borrow the doctor’s epithet, still existing; but his great work is the organ of the cathedral of Exeter, made, if we recollect the inscription correctly, in 1665. We extracted this passage more for the sake of the elegant compliment paid to the memory of Abel than to give the history of the viol da gamba; an instrument which may be said to be now extinct, perhaps never to be revived.

The author, in his State of Music at Oxford during the Protectorate, gives many extracts from the life of that well-known antiquary Anthony a Wood, which are highly characteristic and entertaining.

• Oxford,

'Oxford, in the time of the civil war, seems to have been the only place in the kingdom where musical sounds were allowed to be heard; for that city, during a considerable time, being the royal residence, not only the household musicians, but many performers, who had been driven from the cathedrals of the capital, as well as those of other parts of the kingdom, flocked thither as to a place of safety and subsistence; however, in 1646, after the king was obliged to quit this post, and had been totally defeated at Naseby, they were obliged to disperse, and those that were unable to find an asylum in the house of some secret friend to the royal cause and to their art, were obliged to betake themselves to new employments.

'Ten years of gloomy silence seem to have elapsed before a string was suffered to vibrate, or a pipe to breathe aloud, in the kingdom; as we hear of no music-meetings, clubs, or concerts, till the year 1656; when, by the peculiar industry of honest Anthony Wood, whose passion for the art inclined him to regard every thing that belonged to it worthy of memorial, we have an exact account of the state of practical music in this university.'

We have now brought down our review of this very considerable work to the period of the Restoration. We hope to be able to return to it very soon.

Observations and Reflections made in the Course of a Journey through France, Italy, and Germany. By Hester Lynch Piozzi. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

WE once quoted Dr. Johnson's admirable farewell letter to his 'Thralia:' it enjoined her not to quit England; not to live in Italy. We have thought, more than once, that these volumes formed a laboured answer to it. Notwithstanding heat and cold; scorpions, gnats, and beetles; the offensive smells on one side, and the parched grounds, pointed out by the lively pleasure expressed at seeing occasional verdure on the other, every thing is charming. The Alps and Apennines lose their terrors; Rome is the mistress of the world; Milan and Florence are its gardens; nor is Lucca, where liberty gives the zest to labour, and unusual fertility is the reward of both, without its share of praise. Whether this hypothesis is well founded; whether the love of literary fame, or some meaner motive, suggested this publication, is of little importance to us, or to the world: the '*Observations and Reflections*' will be always pleasing; though in the loose negligent undress in which they appear, the title and form of Letters would have been preferable. But Mrs. Piozzi detests deceit. She would not call by the name of letters what was not written in that form; and would not

condescend to disguise her sex by a man's habit, to see a beautiful picture, which had strongly excited her curiosity, but to which, as it was in a monastery, women were not ostensibly admitted. We cannot blame so laudable an inclination; but, if she would not be a correspondent, she should have been a more correct observer. The style, which we might have praised in letters, is disgusting in the author of more collected remarks; and the inaccuracies, which are excusable in these unpremeditated effusions, must be condemned in what appears to be a more serious attempt. Crambo, the friend and associate of Martinus Scriblerus, was, it is said, every day under the influence of some particular word. Our fair author is possessed by many such dæmons. Every thing is at times *so* elegant—and it is *so* disgusting: 'we never should have heard of such a trifle, but that it happened just by, *so*.' Then it is *such*; and this little word, without the corresponding part of the sentence, is repeated many times in a few lines. Again, it is very often *somehow*—'I did not greatly like it, *somehow*.' At another time, '*one*' is wholly predominant; and it would be difficult to bring in the word more frequently than in the following short sentence—'*one* cannot for *one's* life, hear *one* another speak.' Indeed, '*one*' is the favourite through the whole work; and almost divides the lady's favours, with the beautiful, harmonious, and elegant monosyllable '*so*.' Really, Madam, *one* cannot read ten lines without feeling *somehow* such disgust *so*: *one* is tempted to lay down a work, where *one* meets with *so* many inelegancies, *such* colloquial barbarisms, which *one* must always feel *somehow* unpleasant.

But to leave these little errors, these little offences against what ought to distinguish even the conversation of every elegant and well-educated woman, we shall turn to the work, remarking only that Mrs. Piozzi introduces a little too frequently allusions to literature and science, which are sometimes so greatly forced, as to appear affected; and, in one or two instances, so inapplicable as to become ridiculous. In her tour, she first appears at Calais, hurries through Paris and Lyons, across the Alps to Turin, Genoa, and Milan. At Milan, the travellers remained some months, and next went to Padua, Venice, Ferrara, Bologna, across the Apennines to Florence. After some stay at Florence, the party directed their course to Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn, Sienna, and Rome. At Rome, we have them at the end of the first volume; and we shall stop here to give some account of what occurs in it.

It is a trite observation, that every traveller sees with different

ferent eyes; and, if the remarks are written while the ideas are vivid, will dwell on what was most striking in the view, and most interesting in the recollection. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu described with accuracy the dress and appearance of the enchanting sultana, to whom she was admitted, neglecting some other circumstances which the philosophic enquirer could wish to have known; and Hasselquist, on the other hand, scarcely says any thing of the Pyramids of Egypt, except to describe a species of moss which grew on them, and some pismires whose nest was near their base. From Mrs. Piozzi, we receive much that other travellers have thought perhaps beneath their notice, but which fills up the picture of Italy, and is interesting to every one who would pursue nature in different paths, where various emergencies require suitable resources, or where different tastes suggest a variety of ornament. The splendid scenes strike her imagination; but her description is general, and frequently undiscriminated: the little objects of fancy and of taste seem to be more congenial, and are rested on with apparently greater fondness.

When we again turned over the first volume, with a view of selecting some parts which might give an adequate idea of the varied information and entertainment which it affords, we found so many passages marked, that selection was difficult, and it was no equivocal proof, that whatever censure rigid criticism might pass on the whole, there were many very brilliant and highly pleasing parts. Indeed, Mrs. Piozzi enlivens the dullest subject by the sprightliness of her descriptions, and her various resources in different sciences. We will set out with the lady in her passage over the Alps:

‘In these prospects, colouring is carried to its utmost point of perfection, particularly at the time I found it, variegated with golden touches of autumnal tints; immense cascades mean time bursting from naked mountains on the one side; cultivated fields, rich with vineyards, on the other, and tufted with elegant shrubs that invite one to pluck and carry them away to where they would be treated with much more respect. Little towns sticking in the clefts, where one would imagine it was impossible to clamber; light clouds often sailing under the feet of the high-perched inhabitants, while the sound of a deep and rapid though narrow river, dashing with violence among the insolently impeding rocks at the bottom, and bells in thickly-scattered spires calling the quiet Savoyards to church upon the steep sides of every hill—fill one’s mind with such mutable, such various ideas, as no other place can ever possibly afford.’—

—‘Going down the Italian side of the Alps is, after all, an astonishing journey; and affords the most magnificent scenery

in nature, which, varying at every step, gives new impression to the mind each moment of one's passage; while the portion of terror excited either by real or fancied dangers on the way, is just sufficient to mingle with the pleasure, and make one feel the full effect of sublimity. To the chairmen who carry one though, nothing can be new; it is observable that the glories of these objects have never faded—I heard them speak to each other of their beauties, and the change of light since they had passed by last time, while a fellow, who spoke English as well as a native, told us, that having lived in a gentleman's service twenty years between London and Dublin, he at length begged his discharge, chusing to retire and finish his days a peasant upon these mountains, where he first opened his eyes upon scenes that made all other views of nature insipid to his taste.*

We next arrive at Turin.

* Some letters from home directed me to enquire in this town for Doctor Charles Allioni, who kindly received, and permitted me to examine the rarities, of which he has a very capital collection. His fossil fish in slate—blue slate, are surprisingly well preserved; but there is in the world, it seems, a chrysalised trout, not flat, nor the flesh eaten away, as I understand, but round; and, as it were, cased in chrysal like our *aspiques*, or *fruit in jelly*: the colour still so perfect that you may plainly perceive the spots upon it, he says. To my enquiries after this wonderful petresfaction, he replied, "That it might be bought for a thousand pounds;" and added, "that if he were a *Ricco Inglese*, he would not hesitate for the price:" "Where may I see it, sir?" said I; but to that question no intreaties could produce an answer, after he once found I had no mind to buy.—

—The amiable old professor, from whom these particulars were obtained, and who endured my teizing him in bad Italian for intelligence he cared not to communicate, with infinite sweetness and patience grew kinder to me as I became more troublesome to him: and shewing me the book upon botany to which he had just then put the last line, turned his dim eyes upon me, and said, as they filled with tears, "You, Madam, are the last visitor I shall ever more admit to talk upon earthly subjects; my work is done; I finished it as you were entering:—my business now is but to wait the will of God, and die; do you, who I hope will live long and happily, seek out your own salvation, and pray for mine." Poor dear Doctor Allioni! My enquiries concerning this truly venerable mortal ended, in being told that his relations and heirs teized him cruelly to sell his manuscripts, insects, &c. and divide the money amongst *them* before he died.

We should have stopped a little at Milan; but the best parts we have seen already retailed in the news-papers. We may however, select a short anecdote:

† Natural

'National character is a great matter: I did not know there had been such a difference in the ways of thinking, merely from custom and climate, as I see there is; though one has always read of it: it was, however, entertaining enough to hear a travelled gentleman haranguing away three nights ago at our house in praise of English cleanliness, and telling his auditors how all the men in London, *that were noble*, put on a clean shirt every day, and the women washed the street before his house-door every morning. "*Che schiavitù mai!*" exclaimed a lady of quality, who was listening: "*ma natural mente sarà per comando del principe.*"—*What a land of slavery!*" said Donna Louisa, I heard her: "*but it is all done by command of the sovereign, I suppose.*"

At Venice, where objects are new and uncommon; where our traveller is wild with amazement, and energetic in her descriptions; we find nothing so very different from other accounts, particularly Dr. Moore's, as to induce us to enlarge on what she has remarked: indeed, what seems to us most interesting would be too long for our limits. The passage which relates to Guarini's Pastor Fido, is too interesting to an admirer of Italian literature to be omitted.

'Having heard that Guarini's manuscript of the Pastor Fido, written in his own hand, was safely kept at this place, I asked for it, and was entertained to see his numberless corrections and variations from the original thought, like those of Pope's Homer preserved in the British Museum; some of which I copied over for Dr. Johnson to print, at the time he published his Lives of the English Poets. My curiosity led me to look in the Pastor Fido for the famous passage of *Legge umana, inhumana, &c.* and it was observable enough that he had written it three different ways before he pitched on that peculiar expression which caused his book to be prohibited. Seeing the manuscript I took notice, however, of the beautiful penmanship with which it was written: our English hand-writing cotemporary to his was coarse, if I recollect, and very angular;—but *Italian hand* was the first to become elegant, and still retains some privileges amongst us. Once more, every thing small, and every thing great, revived after the dark ages—in Italy.'

The name of Dr. Johnson reminds us of an observation, which we forgot to make in its proper place. The lady seems occasionally to introduce her old friend, as if she wished her name to pass down the stream of time with his, and to partake the gale of his fame. Yet, there is more than one passage, where we think she feels the lurking sparks of resentment, the veteris vestigia flammæ. In the beginning, she mentions Mrs. Fermor, the prioress of the Austin nuns, niece to Belinda, the heroine of the 'Rape of the Lock.' She remarked, that there was little comfort, in her opinion, 'to

be found in a house that harboured *poets*; for she remembered that Mr. Pope's praise had made her aunt very conceited and troublesome, while his numberless caprices would have employed ten servants to wait on it. He sat dozing chiefly in the day, she said, and wrote his verses in the night, when a maid was constantly employed in making coffee for him.

The Venetians Mrs. Piozzi describes very advantageously. Their softness, their kindness, and good humour; their attention, fidelity, and steadiness, are much commended.

Of Florence we can only describe la Contadinella Toscana, for Mrs. Piozzi's recapitulation is a little too trifling and much too egotic—where I dined with a prince, where I gave a dinner, where Nardini played a solo, where we wrote the Florence Miscellany, &c.—but we forget the damsel:

'La Contadinella Toscana, however, in a very rich white silk petticoat, exceedingly full and short, to show her neat pink slipper and pretty ankle, her pink *corps de robe* and straps, with white silk lacing down the stomacher, puffed shift sleeves, with heavy lace robins ending at the elbow, and fastened at the shoulders with at least eight or nine bows of narrow pink ribbon, a lawn handkerchief trimmed with broad lace, put on somewhat coquettishly, and finishing in front with a nosegay, must make a lovely figure at any rate: though the hair is drawn away from the face in a way rather too tight to be becoming, under a red velvet cushion edged with gold, which helps to wear it off I think, but gives the small Leghorn bar, lined with green, a pretty perking air, which is infinitely nymphish and smart.'

We were well pleased with Lucca, and with the sublime terrors which attended the residence at the baths of Pisa; but we must hasten to Rome: though we shall only make a short stay there with the fair author, and transcribe a short passage as a specimen of her lively descriptive manner:

'At the Colonna palace what have I remarked? That it possesses the gayest gallery belonging to any subject upon earth; one hundred and thirty-nine feet long, thirty-four broad, and seventy high: profusely ornamented with pillars, pictures, statues, to a degree of magnificence difficult to express. The Herodias here by Guido, is the perfection of dancing grace. No Frenchman enters the room that does not bear testimony to its peculiar excellence. But here's Guercino's sweet returning Prodigal, and here is a *Madonna disperata* bursting as from a cavern to embrace the body of her dead son and saviour.—Such a sky too! But it is treating too theatrically a subject which impresses one more at last in the simple *Pietà* d'Annibale Carracci at Palazzo Doria.'

In the second volume are contained Observations and Reflections on Naples, from whence the travellers returned to Rome,

to Bologna, Padua, Venice, Verona, Parma, Milan: from thence they crossed the Alps on the side of Tyrol, to Trent, Inspruck, Munich, Saltzburg, and Vienna. From Vienna they went to Prague, to Dresden, to Berlin, and Potsdam: Hanover, Brussels, Antwerp, and Lisse conclude the tour.

At Naples, Vesuvius, the king, and St Januarius are the principal objects. The mountain is described with wonderful sublimity; the king, with a free lively pencil; and the Saint, con amore; not that Mrs. Piozzi believes the idle tales of the saint's interference to turn away the burning tide; but that she has found in the ceremonies appropriated to this venerable personage, the remains of the rites instituted by Dædus, in honour of Janus. An hypothesis endears the subject; but instead of the learned disquisitions on this system, we shall catch a spark from Vesuvius, and a trait or two from the slight sketch of his Neapolitan majesty.

The weather was quiet then, and we had no notion of passing such a horrible night; but an hour after dark, a storm came on, which was really dreadful to endure; or extend upon: the blue lightning, whose colour showed the nature of the original minerals from which she drew her existence, shone round us in a broad expanse from time to time, and sudden darkness followed in an instant: no object then but the very river could be seen, till another flash discovered the waves tossing and breaking, at a height I never saw before.

When in the silent night, however, one listens to its groaning; while hollow sighs, as of gigantic sorrow, are often heard distinctly in my apartment; nothing can surpass one's sensations of amazement, except the consciousness that custom will abate their keenness: I have not, however, yet learned to lie quiet, when columns of flames, high as the mountain's self, shoot from its crater into the clear atmosphere with a loud and violent noise; nor shall I ever forget the scene it presented one day to my astonished eyes, while a thick cloud, charged heavily with electric matter, passing over, met the fiery explosion by mere chance, and went off in such a manner as effectually baffled all verbal description, and lasted too short a time for a painter to seize the moment, and imitate its very strange effect.

We are sorry that we have room for no more; the king we shall next attend to:

This prince lives among his subjects with the old Roman idea of a window before his bed-room I believe. They know the worst of him is that he shoots at the birds, dances with the girls, eats macaroni, and helps himself to it with his fingers, and rows against the waterman in the bay, till one of them burst out o'bleeding at the nose last week, with his uncourtly efforts to outdo the king, who won the trifling wager by this accident conquered, laughed, and leaped on shore amidst the acclamations

tion of the populace, who huzzaed him home to the palace, from whence he sent double the sum he had won to the waterman's wife and children, with other tokens of kindness. Mean time, while he resolves to be happy himself, he is equally determined to make no man miserable."

The story of the lady, who lost her son in the earthquake of Calabria, is an admirable one: we never saw passion so feelingly, so tenderly portrayed. It is worth a whole volume: and, whatever might be its extent, we should have transcribed it, if the eager proveditores for public curiosity had not already anticipated us.

On the lady's return to Rome, she supplies us with information which had before escaped her, respecting the manners of the Romans and the objects of curiosity and antiquity. When pointing out the tame submission of those in middle life, and the insolence as well as insults of their superiors, she sarcastically remarks, that the Romans deserve to reign over the world once more, if to command is best learned from the practice of obedience. Let us select one other passage, descriptive of St. Peter's church and its objects:

"The figures of angels, or rather cherubims, eight feet high, which support the vases holding holy water, as they are made after the form of babies, do perfectly and closely represent infants of eighteen or twenty months old; nor till one comes quite close to them, indeed, is it possible to discern that they are colossal. This is brought by some as a proof of the exact proportions kept, and of the prodigious space occupied, by the area of this immense edifice; and urged by others, as a peculiarity of the *human* body to deceive so at a distance, most unjustly; for one is surprised exactly in the same manner by the doves, which ornament the church in various parts of it. They likewise appear of the natural size, and completely within one's reach upon entering the door, but soon as approached, recede to a considerable height, and prove their magnitude nicely proportioned to that of the angels and other decorations.

"The canopied altar, and its appurtenances, are likewise all colossal. I think, when they tell me of four hundred and fifty thousand pounds weight of bronze brought from the Pantheon, and used to form the wreathed pillars which support, and the torques that adorn it. Yet airy lightness and exquisite elegance are the characteristics of the fabric, not gloomy greatness, or heavy solidity. How immense then must be the space it stands on! four hundred and sixty-seven of my steps carried me from the door to the end. Warwick castle would be contained in its middle *a/le*. Here are one hundred and twenty silver lamps, each larger than I could lift, constantly burning round the altar; and one never sees either of them, or the light they dispense, till forced upon the observation of them, so completely are they lost

lost in the general grandeur of the whole. In short, with a profusion of wealth that astonishes, and of splendour that dazzles, as soon as you enter on an examination of its secondary parts, every man's first impression at entering St. Peter's church, must be surprise at seeing it so clear of superfluous ornament. This is the true character of innate excellence, the *simplex munditiis*, or freedom from decorations: the noble simplicity to which no embellishment can add dignity, but seems a mere appendage.

The Latin phrase, which has so often tortured philologers is well translated; but, in a moment, this merit is obliterated by a gross error, in a similar attempt. Surely one of her learned friends should have told her that she has entirely mistaken the point and meaning of the lines in p. 115.

'Vendit Alexander claves, altaria Christum;

Vendere jure potest:—emerat ille prius.'

'Our Alexander sells keys, altars, heaven;

When law and right are sold, he'll buy—that's even.'

If it must be rendered in verse, we shall add the following, of which the chief merit is the closeness of the version:

'Keys, altars, Christ himself were sold,

Justly the bishop thought:—

No one can surely think him bold,

To sell what first he bought.'

There are some other little errors in translations, but none very glaring, except the version which we have transcribed.

The short account of the Ambrosian Library and its contents, is interesting; but, in this returning tract, we do not meet many things very entertaining. The remarks are the gleanings of what we met with before, and we shall now turn for a little while to the tour through Germany.

The Tyrolese Alps are, our author tells us, less wild than those of Savoy; the river that runs between them is wide; and, as it affords a passage for floats, the ideas of commerce and of social life take from the horror of the scene. We find ourselves, in a moment, hurried into Germany, where vast and unwieldy magnificence holds the place which the lighter elegance and more corrected taste of Italy had formerly filled. Unfortunately Mrs. Piozzi's entertainment was received only by the eye; and, though she employs her eyes advantageously, and sometimes sees more than could have been expected in her hasty progress, yet we meet with nothing very interesting to record. The emperor is a great object in her picture; but his character was not yet lost by trifling inconsistencies, wild romantic attempts, ill supported by steadiness or resolution. The account of Metastasio contains nothing that we wish to transcribe; if he would not attain the German language,

guage, he at least was not discontented with the regular, invariably regular, routine, which we think a German only could have supported.

The account of Dresden is amusing, and the description of the library and the museum, we believe, in a great measure new. Berlin and Potsdam are described in our author's peculiar manner, for the few circumstances and facts often in a new and generally in an ingenious light. She can remark of Tonson's Caesar, which she saw at the king's library, that it was written by the first general in the world, dedicated to the second (the duke of Marlborough), and possessed by the third.

We apprehend that she has well appreciated their respective merits, for we know some good military judges, who are of opinion, that Frederick's victories would neither have been so brilliant, nor so easy, had he been opposed to the duke of Marlborough. We smile to see that the duchess of Brunswick's coffin was made before she was married to the duke; at least, before she left England. Mrs. Piozzi's remarks on the pictures, which she saw in Germany, are, as usual, animated and judicious. On her return through Brussels and Antwerp her attention continues to be alive, and her spirits seem not to fail.

We have been thus led on by our sprightly author, who amuses, displeases us, and again recovers her former favour, with skill and address. Fastidious criticism (perhaps she may give this title to our remarks), may reject the work; but no person of taste and good humour can be long angry. Her volumes will be favourites, when criticism is no more.

Travels through the Interior Parts of America. In a Series of Letters. By an Officer. In Two Vols. 8vo. 14s. in Boards. Lane.

IF any one should say, why do you tell again the old obsolete story at this time?—It is because you should be acquainted with, and sensible of the merits of each party. Such is the substance, and nearly the words of our author's motto. We were led by it to suspect that the truth would be revealed, difficulties removed, and the whole of the unfortunate expedition of general Burgoyne, for the author was an officer in the convention-army, placed in a true light. We are sorry to observe, that our expectations were almost entirely frustrated. From a careful comparison we can pronounce this work, in its most essential parts, to be an ill-digested plagiarism from general Burgoyne's Narrative, and from the Account of the Prosecution of Colonel Henley. He arraigns sir William Howe

Howe in the same manner as Mr. Galloway and a numerous herd of pamphleteers have already done; and, when he speaks of that general's neglect in not attacking Wallington at Valley Forge, he adopts the sentiments and expressions of the Pennsylvania lawyer. The similarity of language in various parts of these volumes, to that which occurs in the works referred to, render us a little suspicious that the more material parts of these letters were not written on the spot. The views however are clear, instructive, and, characteristic: for these we are certainly indebted to him, and they have much merit.

Justice has drawn a little reluctantly from us these remarks, for we own that we wished to have given a favourable verdict. If in his moments of leisure he had taken up the works we have mentioned, and added to, or elucidated them: if Burnaby, the American Farmer's Letters, and a few other works which appear familiar to him, had been quoted, instead of being transcribed, and any circumstance which occurred in confirmation of their remarks been supplied, however scanty the fare, we should have been pleased with it. But we now walk on insecure ground, and, unless we examine more attentively than the objects before us seem to demand, we know not when to praise the author as a careful observer, or as an accurate copier. In the remarks which lie before us, our recollection has supplied us in a great degree; but we wish to turn from this unpleasing task; to step over the path again which our author really trod, and to glean from his collections, what in the former harvest had been omitted. Mr. Anbury is a pleasing narrator, but his reflections are not alway politically deep, or philosophically just.

We arrive with him in the Gulf of the river St. Lawrence, and we examine after him a little more closely, and with more entertainment than in the voyage of any other traveller, this famous river. We omit the little accounts of the voyage, and the difficulty which the author feels at accounting for the number of cod on the banks of Newfoundland, a fact that has been very often explained; as well as the philosophical account of the formation of those banks, which in reality owe their origin to the Gulf-stream, and their inhabitants to the proper nidus they afford for the spawn. Of Quebec our author's account is not so brilliant and so flattering as that of Mrs. Brooks in Emily Montague; but the devastations of the siege were not then, we find, repaired. The country round is passed over cursorily; but the Canadian seigneurs appear to be imperious, illiterate, and ignorant. General Carlton, by his attention to conciliate the affections of the inhabitants, has rendered their conduct insolent and oppressive; but as the

cause of this peculiar regard is at an end, we have no doubt but that it is now regulated on a more general and more impartial foundation. The author's declamation in praise of a savage, in comparison of a civilised life, is too much in the manner of Rousseau to please a less enthusiastic enquirer. It is with more satisfaction, because we have ample reason to believe it just, that we wish to transcribe his character of general Burgoyne.

‘ I have been this afternoon upon the ramparts, to see the Apollo frigate drop down, in which general Burgoyne sails for England; who, I am persuaded, has the sincere and ardent wishes of all ranks in the army, for his safety and happy arrival. The general joins to the dignity of office, and strict attention to military discipline, that consideration, humanity, and mildness of manners, which must ever endear him to all who have the happiness to be under his command; for my own part, I shall pray with Shakspeare, “ that the winds of all the corners may kiss the sails, and make his vessel prosperous.”

Even after the unfortunate event of the expedition, and in the subsequent events, the language is the same: we shall add a short specimen.

‘ General Burgoyne has done every thing in this convention for the good of the troops, consistent with the service of his king and country: all that wisdom, valour, and a strict sense of honour could suggest. Confident, no doubt, of having exerted himself with indefatigable spirit in their service, he will despise popular clamour, truly sensible that no perfect and unbiassed judge of actual service can condemn him. Addison has somewhere observed,

“ ’Tis not in mortals to command success!”

‘ And as the populace, in this versatile age startle at untoward events, so our general is liable to be exposed to public censure. Ample justice must raise him in the mind of every liberal man who will judge with caution, acquit him with honour, and take him to his heart as the soldier's friend—as a man of cool judgment, but ardent for glory—as courageous, but unfortunate!’

Every part of the following relation is so vague and so uncertain, that it seems not to deserve much attention; yet we bring it forward, as it seems connected with what we have observed in our review of the late voyages of capt. Dixon and capt. Portlock.

‘ It having been hinted that a reward would be given to him who should discover a north-west passage, or whether the continent joins to India, two suppositions much credited by the Europeans in general; several of the traders have endeavoured to find which is the true one: as there is every year some fresh
dis-

discovery made, there remains but little doubt that in some future time it will be effected. I believe the farthest that any of them have yet reached was a Mr. Henry, who is reported to have traveled for ten days upon a large plain, on which grew only a rank grass, nearly as high as a man's breast, and on this plain he frequently met with immense droves of buffaloes, and observed the tracks of several others; that on the eleventh day he came to a vast river, which stopped his progress, as he did not chuse to venture crossing in a canoe; that the water was quite salt, and run extremely rapid, from which circumstance he concluded there must be a north-west passage.

Of the observations in natural history we can give no very advantageous account: they are often trite, and almost always copied; besides, that an affectation of sensibility and refinement, as in the account of the conjugal happiness of the beaver, show that the author too often depends on his imagination to che out his description. What Mr. Ansbary saw he describes, we believe, faithfully, and often pleasingly. The following description includes more than one circumstance not generally known.

‘ Having proceeded thus far up the lake (Champlain), I am enabled to give you some account of it, especially as we have passed the broadest part. There are many small islands dispersed in different parts, and where it is widest, you are not able to discern the opposite shore; there are several plantations on each side, but they are more numerous on the south, the north side being lofty rocky mountains. It abounds with great quantities and variety of fish; surgeon, black bass, masquenongez, pike of an incredible size, and many others, among which is a cat-fish, which is about eighteen inches long, of a brownish cast, without scales, having a large round head, resembling that of a cat's, from which it derives its name; they have on their heads protuberances similar to the horns of a snail, and like them can elevate and depress them at pleasure, and when fully extended, are about two inches long; if in liberating one of these fish from the hook, it strikes you with one of its horns, it leaves an unaccountable and unpleasant sensation on the part affected for two or three days. Its fins are very bony and strong, like those of a perch, it commonly weighs about five or six pounds; the flesh is fat and luscious, greatly resembling the flavour of an eel.

‘ There are at this season of the year prodigious flights of pigeons crossing the lake, of a most beautiful plumage, and in astonishing quantities.

‘ These are most excellent eating, and that you may form some idea as to their number, at one of our encampments, the men for one day wholly subsisted on them; fatigued with their flight in crossing the lake, they alight upon the first branch they

they can reach to, many are so weary as to drop in the water, and are easily caught; those that alight upon a bough being unable to fly again, the soldiers knock down with long poles.

During the flights of these pigeons, which cross these lakes into Canada, and are continually flying about in large flocks, the Canadians find great amusement in shooting them, which they do after a very singular manner: in the day-time they go into the woods, and make ladders by the side of the tall pines, which the pigeons roost on, and when it is dark they creep softly under and fire up this ladder, killing them in great abundance; they then strike a light, and firing a knot of the pitch-pine, pick up those they have killed, and the wounded ones that are unable to fly. During the flights of these pigeons, which generally lasts three weeks or a month, the lower sort of Canadians mostly subsist on them.

In sailing up the lake the trees seemed to stand in the water; for the underwood was no longer seen, a phenomenon which Mr. Anbury cannot account for. It is connected, we think, with the very common remark, that at sea the mast of a ship is first seen; and this phenomenon has been explained from the convexity of the earth, perhaps without sufficient reflection: yet it is not easy to attribute it to any other source, though there is little doubt, from calculating the degree of curvature at that distance, at most three leagues, that some other cause must exist. We may however add, that the description of the expedition over the lakes appeared to us the most entertaining, and is undoubtedly the most original part of the whole work.

In the second volume our author's guides seem to have been chiefly Burnaby and the American Farmer; but he must have seen many scenes of the kind which he describes. The distresses of the convention-army, except from the rash violence of col. Henley, seem not to have been great till they arrived at Charlotteville, where they undoubtedly suffered from the insecurity of their habitations to guard against cold, occasionally from the damaged and condemned provisions of the congress-army, the only provisions for a time allotted them, from the sparing supply of their food, and afterwards from their removal. The back woodsmen seem scarcely to be removed from the state of brutes, and differ little from them, except in having more malignity, more suspicion, and less tenderness. Their personal combats are such as among brutes, in their most furious rage, are never seen.

In this volume we may remark, that our author's account of the growth of the cotton plant is in a great part new and instructive. The Dunkers, which he calls Dumpers, but the work is in general carelessly written or printed,

were

were well known. The Moravians are described more particularly than in former authors. The description of Bland and his dragoons is truly humorous, and can only be equalled by the most exaggerated caricature of the trained bands. The story of Watson is very interesting; but the account of the Negroes is painted with a gloomy pencil. Yet, amidst all their misery, they are said to be fat and chearful: we may now add, that slavery is abolished, if the resolutions of Congress have any effect, particularly among the brutish back woodsmen.

It is in the second volume also that the author's political reflections are chiefly found. In these, we think, he is often inconsistent with himself, and with the circumstances with which he must have been acquainted. Let us select a specimen of his abilities in this department.

“ If general Howe had his reasons for not proceeding up the North River, and wished to strike terror into some of the provinces, I think there were none he could so well have directed that terror against, as those of New England; for by a diversion on the coast of Massachusetts many benefits would have resulted: it would have kept the New Englanders at home for the internal defence of their own provinces, and impeded the levies for the continental army. Such a diversion would have been a co-operation with our army, and no doubt have prevented the misfortunes that have befallen it, the principal part of the army under general Gates being composed of the militia of the New England provinces, who must have been drawn down to the defence of the cities upon that coast, in which case our army could not have failed to overcome every possible difficulty, and have effected a junction with the detachment that was sent up the North River, under the command of sir Henry Clinton, from which detachment it certainly was obvious, that the object of the two armies were the same, that of forming a junction.

“ Certainly then it behoved general Howe to see so large and important a reinforcement as our army would have been to his, in a state of perfect security at least, before he carried him so far to the southward, as to deprive him of the power of support. That our army was to be considered as no other than a reinforcement to general Howe's, is evident from the very orders given out by general Carleton, at the opening of the campaign, stating, “ That his majesty had ordered him to detach general Burgoyne with certain troops, who was to proceed with all possible expedition to join general Howe, and put himself under his command;” at the same time adding this powerful reason, “ with a view of quelling the rebellion it is become highly necessary, that the most speedy junction of the two armies should be effected.”

‘By the junction of the two armies, we should have been in possession of the North River, from New York to Albany, which divides the northern from the southern provinces. General Washington would in that case have been totally deprived of the great supplies of men and provisions from the New England states; and the British army would have been enabled to make excursions into either provinces, as occasion might serve: the main part of the army might have kept Washington at bay, while a few redoubts, with the assistance of our shipping, would have preserved the entire possession of the river.’

It may be fairly asked, in case the diversion which the author mentions had taken place, what were to have become of the immense bodies of militia, which the New Englanders are said in the preceding paragraph to furnish, and of that army, which, in page 46, he says these states can raise in a few days? It certainly was designed that the two armies should have joined; but not in their whole extent: the army that was to have co-operated with general Burgoyne was that which sir Henry Clinton could have detached after he had been reinforced. The happy combination of military science and courage, which this general displayed in his successful attack on the forts in the North River, is well known; and had his reinforcements arrived in time to have made it earlier, the consequences would probably have been most fortunate. This is general Burgoyne's own opinion in his *Narrative*, p. 25. and in some measure confirmed by Mr. Anbury in his 34th page. It is observable, that general Burgoyne makes this declaration after the failure of the siege of Fort Stanwix, and the check at Bennington. In military transactions, the language of the public is for bold and vigorous exertions: the very expression implies hazard to obtain an advantage adequate to the adventure. On this ground it was a sufficient object to the northern army to force its way to Albany, while that under sir William Howe employed the main force of the enemy, under Washington, at a distance; and had both these armies been as successful as might have been expected, sir William Howe's plan would probably not have failed (page 21 of his *Narrative*). To follow our author in his political doublings is unnecessary: the principal answer is in the 19th page of sir William Howe's *Narrative*. If we examine the comparative numbers of each army, and the necessary defences, our author's reasoning is still more untenable.

Those who are unacquainted with former travellers in America, and the eventful history of the convention-army, will find much amusement in these volumes. We need not add to what we have said, except that we wish the author more success in his future attempts.

The

The Life of Thomas Chatterton, with Criticisms on his Genius and Writings, and a concise View of the Controversy concerning Rowley's Poems. By G. Gregory, D. D. F. A. S. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Kearsley.

IT is with some regret that we turn to this barren, this unprofitable controversy, a regret heightened by Dr. Gregory's conduct, which we think in many respects uncandid and unfair. This Life is designed for the fourth volume of the *Biographia Britannica*; but in a great work, of which the nation may in general boast, the utmost care should be employed to guard against misrepresentations; or at least that minute and particular criticism which is challenged by a separate publication. If 'a separate edition was to appear only for the accommodation and satisfaction of a few friends,' why was the work advertised with a sedulity which seems to show that the author expected some fame, and perhaps some reward of more solid importance?

Chatterton's Life is detailed with some care; but the fondness of the child for an illuminated initial, or rather a glaring picture, is considered as the early appearance of the bent of his genius; and his learning to read from a black letter testament, as the cause of 'his peculiar attachment to antiquities.' If learning be a task and a painful labour, it is more probable that the effect would have been a very different one. Another curious deduction of our author is, that as Chatterton mentions the names of Bingham, Young, and Stillingfleet, in his short satirical poem styled *Apostate Will*, he was acquainted with their works. We are a little surprised that our author had not there added his grave reflection, which he has annexed to Chatterton's 'Remarks on the Awefulness of the Ceremony of Confirmation, and his own Feelings preparatory to it'—'Happy had it been for him if these sentiments, so congenial to the amiable dispositions of youth, had continued to influence his conduct during his maturer years.'

Perhaps the reader of this paragraph would not at first suspect that it is the object of Dr. Gregory, in the work before us, to defend the propriety of his conduct *in general*, during his maturer years. Indeed this error is not of peculiar importance, for Dr. Gregory occasionally styles Chatterton's deism by the indiscriminate term of infidelity, and does not always distinguish his free-thinking from his regular conduct. But we must mix our portion of blame with praise; and we shall transcribe the following passage as a proof of good sense, just remarks, and proper distinctions. We are sorry that they are not always kept in view.

'Infidelity, or scepticism at least, may be termed the disease of young, lively, and half-informed minds. There is something

K 2

something like discovery in the rejection of truths to which they have been from infancy in trammels. A little learning, too, misleads the understanding, in an opinion of its own powers. When we have acquired the outlines of science, we are apt to suppose that every thing is within our comprehension. Much study and much information are required to discover the difficulties in which the systems of infidels are involved. There are profound, as well as popular arguments, in favour of revealed religion; but when the flippancy of Voltaire or Hume has taught young persons to suppose that they have defeated the former, their understandings seldom recover sufficient vigour to pursue the latter with the ability and perseverance of a Newton or a Bryant.

‘The evil effect of these principles upon the morals of youth, is often found to survive the speculative impressions which they have made on the intellect. Wretched is that person, who, in the ardour and impetuosity of youth, finds himself released from all the salutary restraints of duty and religion; wretched is he, who, deprived of all the comforting hopes of another state, is reduced to seek for happiness in the vicious gratifications of this life; who, under such delusions, acquires habits of profligacy or discontent! The progress, however, from speculative to practical irreligion, is not so rapid as is commonly supposed. The greatest advantage of a strict and orderly education is the resistance which virtuous habits, early acquired, oppose to the allurements of vice. Those who have sullied the youth of Chatterton with the imputation of extraordinary vices or irregularities, and have asserted, that “his profligacy was, at least, as conspicuous as his abilities,” have, I conceive, rather grounded these assertions on the apparently profane and immoral tendency of some of his productions than on personal knowledge or a correct review of his conduct. During his residence at Bristol, we have the most respectable evidence in favour of the regularity of his conduct, namely, that of his master, Mr. Lambert. Of few young men in his situation it can be said, that during a course of nearly three years, he seldom encroached upon the strict limits which were assigned him, with respect to his hours of liberty; that his master could never accuse him of improper behaviour, and that he had the utmost reason to be satisfied he never spent his hours of leisure in any but respectable company.’

In the course of the narrative, Dr. Gregory leans strongly, *we think*, to the side of Chatterton not being the author of the works attributed to Rowley. He points out that Chatterton could not disguise his hand, in an anonymous letter sent to his master, Mr. Lambert, but of which Chatterton was never proved to be the author. He does not, however, till he is obliged to do it in summing up the evidence, mention his being in the habit of blackening parchments: he does not, as he ought
to

to have done, shown that the poems first produced were, of all, the most modern, and some confessedly his own.

In his view of the evidence, he quotes very frequently the *Monthly Review*; and, though we could boast, if necessary, of *our* account of the controversy, the remarks in our *Journal* are copied, without any acknowledgment. They may perhaps have occurred elsewhere; for, if Dr. Gregory had honoured us with his notice, he would have found some observations, at least as decidedly in favour of Chatterton's claim as any that occur in any work. But what is more to our present purpose, he would have found opportunities of correcting some errors. If Chatterton poisoned himself, it was as much from disappointed ambition as from indigence, as we have mentioned and could prove; and the drawing of the statue of Becksford was, we formerly observed, the work of Mr. Taylor. The verses now first printed as new, the author ought to have known were published some years since, in an engraved fac simile of Chatterton's handwriting; and he might have known also, that the *Consiliad* was not the production of this premature and unfortunate genius. Many other little errors we had marked, which it is of no use to enlarge on: we shall only hint, that before he had drawn the name of a Reviewer into public notice, he ought at least to have been ascertained that the articles in question were really Mr. Badcock's, or at least exclusively his.

Remarks on the Coinage of England, from the earliest to the present Times, to which is added an Appendix, containing Observations on the Ancient Coinage, &c. By Walter Murray, Esq., 2s. Longman.

THIS little work, the production of a sensible intelligent man, is printed very inaccurately, and perhaps the author may be more fit to instruct us, by new ideas, than to entertain us in flowing periods. His object is to show the causes of the present scarcity of silver for change. In reality, we have very little, unless it be light; for, of the shillings usually current, about eight in ten are counterfeit, independent of those formed of base metal, with a very small proportion of silver: what we mean by counterfeits, are shillings formed of good silver, but deficient in weight more than one third, which have never issued from the Mint. Our crowns and half crowns we retain only because they are light, though seemingly fair and little worn. Much of this scarcity is undoubtedly owing to the exports of the East India company; but these, we trust, are at an end, since more European goods are sent to China, and the deficiency nearly made up from Bengal. We may just mention, that the anti-

gonists of the commutation act have never taken the question in this view: the money exported was more because the foreign merchant had his profit: but the money taken by the smuggler was gold, and it was very frequently light gold.

Mr. Merrey gives a pretty accurate history of the coinage; and, in tracing the effects of the different and proportional prices of the more precious metals, he finds, that the scarcity of silver, for obvious reasons, has been always the consequence of the too high price of gold.

‘It may seem odd to some of my readers, especially if he be a farmer, that a flow of money of one kind should make the other rise, he will be ready to argue, that if the quantity of oats in the nation was to be doubled in a week, by importation, the price must fall, but it could not raise the price of wheat; nay, on the contrary, it would have a tendency to lower it. But will the farmer give me as much wheat for a *last* of my oats as he would before the price of my oats fell? If not, the proportion is altered; and then it makes no difference whether we say that oats fell, or wheat rose; more of the oats must go for every thing that I want, or in other words, more silver must go to purchase either gold or food; and the event proved it to be so; for in those times the price of every necessary of life rose; which in other words is saying, that silver fell, or if you please, the wheat or the gold rose; but though more silver was required for gold, yet more gold was required for food, and labour than had usually been paid, so that the owner of a small share of gold did not gain all the advance of its price.’

Indeed our author shows clearly, that if silver be coined at the old standard, it will be sent away, unless gold be lowered. Perhaps the last attempt would be dangerous; and, as silver is chiefly adapted to internal commerce, it might be better to lower its standard: at all events, a new coinage of silver is absolutely necessary for the conveniencies of the manufacturer and his labourer. Mr. Merrey’s observations on the necessity of keeping guineas at their full weight, and the methods which he proposes for that purpose, are very judicious and solid. The Appendix relates to the Roman coins, as well as some medals found at Nottingham; and, on these subjects, our author shows that he possesses no inconsiderable acquaintance with ancient coins.

Matilda, an Original Poem, in Seven Cantos. By Mr. Bost.
4to. 2s. 6d. Stalker,

THOUGH the Poem, as the title affirms, is original, the subject is very trite. The author opens it with an invocation to Fancy to assist him in relating a story, the reality of which,

which, its more tragical parts sometimes excepted, observation constantly offers to our view. Its counterpart is to be found, we fear, during the period of a few revolving years, within the precincts of most parishes in his majesty's dominions. The triteness of a story is indeed often more than compensated for by the mode of telling it; but this idea, we fear, will not be suggested to the reader's mind by the perusal of that contained in the following poem. The first canto has no connection with it, and the second begins with unfolding its moral, and introducing the heroine to our acquaintance:

'To warn the fair against insidious snares,
Expose the stratagems of their betray'rs;
When virtue's lost what dire misfortunes rise
To place in strongest light before their eyes,
I strike the lyre' —
— 'Remote from cities, fair Matilda smil'd,
A virtuous, much belov'd, and only child;
From infancy her tender thoughts were train'd
In wisdom's rules, and by those rules restrain'd.'

We shall pass over the high encomiums paid to this lady and her father Anselmo, who preferred retirement to the 'gilded scenes of life,' and proceed to the third canto, which informs us, that in the neighbourhood dwelt a gentleman of an illustrious family, called Castalio, lately returned from Italy:

'And there had gain'd that ease, that sweet address,
Which ever will the cultur'd mind impress,
Which ever must o'er pedantry prevail,
Tho' it may thunder classics thick as hail:
And our all-wise Creator sure design'd
We should our manners form as well as mind,
Or he to us had not a person giv'n
Just like his own, and all the saints in heav'n!'

To improve our manners, like Castalio, would not surely tend to heighten the resemblance! Anselmo, perceiving that he had gained his daughter's affections,

— 'Every effort try'd
Matilda's ill-plac'd passion to deride.
But tho' she e'er rever'd his sound advice,
She now, alas! did not regard his voice:
'Twas needless all—he could not move her mind,
Now dead to all but love, to reason blind.'

There is nothing but what is extremely common in all this: it somewhat militates however against Matilda's character for virtue and wisdom, which is drawn out at some length in the second canto; particularly as we find that she often,

— 'To ease her love-sick soul,
Unknown amidst Castalio's ground would stroll.'

In the next canto she is caught by Castalio in one of these excursions. He assures her that he is deeply enamoured of her charms: entreats her to

'Leave, for a while, a rigid father's care,
And to the fashionable world repair;
With me this night, my love, consent to fly,
Where London's turrets strike th' astonish'd eye,
I'll be thy kind protector, friend, and guide,
And my Matilda make Castalio's bride.'

Matilda consents to the proposal, and desires him, which doubtless she had great reason to expect, to

'Be strict to honour, and to virtue just.'

Anselmo perceives her to be particularly agitated on her return, and ascribes it to the emotions of 'ill-fated love.' He gives her some good advice, but, as usual in such situations, to very little purpose. The opening of the fifth canto, (we do not give it as a correct passage, though the author appears to more than common advantage), contains some original thoughts and poetical imagery:

'Now the pale moon uprose in clouded robe,
And cast uncertain light upon the globe;
Thro' vapours dense she floated soft away,
Now shone with bright, and now with blunted ray;
The Fairies, Gnomes, and Sylphs (a pigmy band),
In dance and frolic tripp'd it hand in hand;
With grace they gambol'd on the silver'd green,
Attended by their beauteous, sprightly queen.
The tides now influenc'd by her ruling pow'r,
O'erwhelm'd the meads, and crush'd the springing flow'r.
Chain'd on his bed of straw the madman fell,
Soon as he view'd her, gave an hideous yell;
The dismal cry increas'd each maniac's fears,
Then follow'd groans, and shrieks, and floods of tears.'

Anselmo is informed of his daughter's and Castalio's flight, and pursues them:

'But now, alas! he ill fatigue could bear,
For time had silver'd o'er his scanty hair;
A raging fever therefore seiz'd his frame,
Before he could the capital attain.'

This fever puts a period to his sufferings, and his address to the Almighty concludes the fifth canto. The sixth informs us, but we needed not a ghost to tell us this, that

! At

' At an unlucky moment (pain to tell !)

The hapless maid, to virtue bade farewell !'

Reflection and remorse follow : she urges Castalis to marry her according to his promise, which he evades. She hears of her father's death, and in the utmost agony renews her solicitations : he assures her that within three days he will make her his wife, and she believes him.

The last canto opens with a description of her joy at the dawn of the promised day — but no Castalis arrives. A rude servant of his appears on the following one, and orders her and her female attendant to comply with his master's injunctions, and quit the house. She determines to follow him to his country retirement, and plunge a dagger in the traitor's heart.' She is taken ill on her journey, seats herself on a ' time-worn bench' in a church-yard, and hears her father's voice issuing from a tomb, where we may suppose him to have been buried. He assures her of his forgiveness, and advises her by penitence to reconcile herself to heaven. She dies, and with her last breath forgives Castalis ; but the poet tells us,

' Tho' vengeance moves but *slow*, it *soon* o'ertakes
The villain who the bounds of virtue breaks.'

The tale appears to us as inartificially conducted, as it is common. The lady yields so easily to seduction, that she is scarcely an object of compassion. Its poetical merit may be estimated from the extracts we have given.

The Harp. A Legendary Tale. In Two Parts. 4to. 1s. 6d.
Johnson.

' **S**TILL'D is the tempest's blust'ring roar ;
Hoarse dash the billows of the sea : —
But who on Kilda's dismal shore
Cries—" Have I burnt my harp for thee !"

In this abrupt, but not inartificial manner, the poem, into the spirit of which we immediately enter, opens. ' I'll never burn my harp for a woman,' is a proverbial phrase in the Hebrides, and tradition attributes it to Col, a celebrated bard of the Isle of Barra. His mistress, Mora, admired his musical talents, but disliked him as a lover. At length, censured by her friends, and pressed by her relations, she tells him,

' Too long, O Col ! in plaintive moan
Thou'st strung thy Harp to strains divine ; —
Add but two strings of varied tone
This heart, — this yielding heart is thine.

' Two

‘ Two strings the youth with anxious care,
 Half doubtful to his Harp applies ;
 And oft in vain, he turns each air,
 And oft each varying note he tries ;
 ‘ At length, (unrival’d in his art !)
 With new-born sounds the valley rings ;
 Col claims his Mora’s promis’d heart,
 As deep he strikes the varied strings !’

At the conclusion of ‘ three honied moons’ they embark in a skiff to visit her parents in a neighbouring isle. A storm arises, and they are cast away on the coast of Kilda. ‘ He saves his love and favourite harp’ with difficulty, and conveys them to a cave by the sea side ; is in agonies at perceiving her pale and speechless :

“ No roof its friendly smoke displays !—
 No storm-scap’d plank, nor turf, nor tree !—
 No shrub to yield one kindly blaze,
 And warm my love to life and me !

“ Dark grows the night !—and cold and sharp
 Beat wind, and hail, and drenching rain !—
 Nought else remains—I’ll burn my Harp !”
 He cries, and breaks his Harp in twain.’

In consequence of this sacrifice a fire is kindled, Mora revives, and they talk cheerfully of their past dangers. They are alarmed at hearing the voice of a person in distress : Col determines to defend his Mora : a wretched object approaches, who had like them suffered shipwreck. — This stranger had long been the lover of Mora, and was secretly beloved by her ; but family feuds had prevented their union, and on hearing of her marriage he had wandered in despair from one solitary isle to another. The poem thus concludes, with their treacherous requital of the bard’s benevolence :

‘ Ah ! little thought he while he strove
 ‘Gainst whelming wave and rocky shore,
 Yon light would guide him to his love,
 For whom these ceaseless ills he bore !

“ Why starts the youth ?—approach—draw near ;
 Behold the wreck of storm and wave !—

‘Tis all that’s left !—my Harp so dear
 I burn’d, that fair one’s life to save !”

‘ A glance from Mora’s speaking eye,
 Half calm’d the fond youth’s labouring breast.—
 The tale goes round—the bleak winds sigh,
 And Col mistrustless sinks to rest,

‘ Ah !

- Ah! how could cold distrust possess
A breast so gen'rous, kind, and true!
- A heart still melting to distress,
To love—false fair one! and to—you—
- The morn arose with aspect drear,
The waves still dash with sullen roar.—
Col starts from rest—no Mora's near,
The treach'rous pair are far from shore!
- From Kilda's cliff, that towers on high,
He spies the white sail far at sea;
And while the big tear fills each eye,
Cries—"Have I burn'd my Harp for thee!"
- O most ungrateful of thy kind!
And most unjust to love and me!—
- O woman! woman! light as wind,
I'll ne'er burn Harp again for thee!"

The poem would possibly have concluded with more spirit had the last four lines been omitted; we cannot however object to them, as they contain the proverbial expression on which the tale is founded. A 'blasted tree' should not have been mentioned in the second stanza of the first book, because Col was obliged to burn his harp on account of his finding 'no shrub, no storm-scap'd plank, nor turf, nor tree.' Nor is it clear in what vessel the lover and Mora escaped from Kilda: both his and Col's appear to have been destroyed by the violence of the storm. Little objection however can be made to this interesting tale, the imagery of which is truly appropriate, and the whole marked by a characteristic simplicity suitable to the subject.

The Female Parliament; or, the Regency considered. By Theophilus Swift, Esq. 4to. 2s. Debrett.

FROM the title we expected some allusion to the politics of the present day: but we found ourselves, at once, and we were not displeased at the disappointment, not among the grey-bearded statesmen in the court of a terrestrial monarch, but with the Graces and Muses in that of Cytherea. The goddess however, according to Mr. Swift, begins to feel the infirmities of age. She informs her audience, that having reigned six thousand long years over the hearts of men,

'Old, wrinkled, no longer I'm toasted divine,
My roses decay, and my lillies decline.'

She therefore requests that a successor be appointed to establish her throne, and maintain her prerogatives. Several of the Muses urge their different claims, but without effect, for the Goddess

Goddeſs asserts her fixed determination to have a mortal deputed as her regent. Many of our fair country-women are introduced as candidates for this honourable poſt; but though the higheſt * panegyrick is beſtowed on each of them, the concluſion conſtantly is, that all theſe ſuperabundantly amiable qualities will not entitle her 'to the chair.' Whether from a conſciouſneſs of having exhausted all his ſtores of praiſe, and encomiaſtic abilities, and, like the painter who threw a veil over the father's diſtreſs, deſpairing to heighten the lines of grief in his countenance, which he had ſo ſtrongly depicted in thoſe of others, we know not: but ſo it is, our author is ſilent in reſpect to the heroine of his tale, and we are left entirely to our own fancy to form an idea of the appointed Regent. Her name is not given, nor any mental quality or perſonal attraction deſcribed: with the following vague panegyric the poem ends:

'For ſee what new glories diſtinguiſh the day,
Like Aurora ſhe comes, and her rivals give way;
The Regent approaches' —————

This ſurely is an *hiatus valde deſendendus*. At the moment we wiſhed to be acquainted with her,

'[At this inſtant Hygeia, the Goddeſs of Health, being ſent by Jupiter, ſuddenly entered the ſenate; and interrupting their proceedings, moved an adjournment.]'

Nothing ſurely could be more *mal a propos* than this meſſage of Jupiter; but ſo ends this performance, which is a mixture of bombaſt and genuine poetry, of claſſical images and modern manners, and which is conducted in ſo eccentric a manner, that we ſcarcely know whether moſt to censure or approve. How far the copies reſemble the originals in the two following portraits, let thoſe who beſt know them determine; the drapery is certainly in general both ſplendid and elegant:

'Now waving the filk of her locks to the breeze,
Luxuriant as bloſſoms that whiten the trees,
The graceful T-rc-nn-l ſtood forth in the ring,
T-rc-nn-l, the daughter of Beauty and Spring.
Health warm'd her fair cheek; and that cheek to adorn,
Her pencil ſhe dipp'd in the bluſh of the morn.
'Twas Nature's fine touch; 'twas the glow of the May,
'Twas the bloſſom that drinks the rich dews of the day.
Yet fair as the lilly of ſilver is ſeen,
The light of her beauty illumin'd the green.

* We ſcarcely, however, know what to ſay to the following odd kind of compliment:

'What Virtue is that? what new Grace from the ſky?
'Tis M^olone, the nymph with the wicked; wild eye.'

Love

Love dimpled the smiles that rejoic'd in her face,
And her sweet little form was the work of a Grace,
In lustre she gains what she loses in size ;—
Tho' the diamond is prais'd, 'tis the brilliant we prize.
The grace of the column, perspectively true,
Delights us the most, when it lessens to view ;
And the magical wand, tho' so slender and small,
Enchants with strong power, and astonishes all.
But vainly, T-re-n-n-l, thy graces we praise,
And magic in vain to dominion shall raise.

' Like the star of the morn, as she mov'd to the throne,
Supreme o'er the rest, in bright dignity shone
The beauty of S-cl-r, that broke thro' the crowd ;
As Light's early daughter peeps over a cloud.
Like Cynthia she tower'd, when she moves in the chace,
In stature the same, as her equal in grace.
High rose her fair brow ;—on that temple of love
Persuasion sat perch'd in the form of a dove.
Joy lighted her smile ; and to purple her lips,
In Beauty's red nectar a rose-bud he dips ;
Love breath'd on the leaves, that reviv'd at his kiss,
Delighting the world with a summer of bliss :
And fair shew'd her teeth, as the blossoms appear
Of the pure double snowdrop, that spangles the year.
See the soft flowing locks of her fine flaxen hair,
How graceful they wave to the fond wooing air !
But vain flow the locks of her fine flaxen hair,
And vain are their nets to insure her the chair.'

Letters on the Works and Character of J. J. Rousseau. To which are added, A Letter from the Countess Alexandre de Vassy to the Baroness de Staël, with the Baroness's Answer, and an Account of the last Moments of Rousseau. By Mademoiselle Necker, Baroness de Staël. Translated from the French. Small 8vo. 3s. sewed. Robinsons.

VOLUMES have been written on the character and genius of the contemplative and philosophic Rousseau, to whom we owe reveries and fancies in abundance, sophisms and paradoxes without number ; but who often teaches with the pen of philosophy the sublimer duties of religion and virtue ; who captivates with a style at once forcible and elegant, who draws away, on some occasions, the judgment by the aid of the imagination. Where is the person who has not found himself persuaded by a chain of the most beautiful and apparently solid reasoning, when the position must in a moment startle and disgust his cooler reason ? Yet we cannot always call Rousseau the model of a religious philosopher, or recommend his works as the lessons of virtue : carried away by his own illusions, he has not perceived

perceived the poison which they frequently contain; trusting to the moral, which often operates faintly, and many will not attend to, he has allowed himself to relate facts and describe scenes, which the vicious only will regard, and, under the auspices of virtue, may undermine and fascinate even the best resolutions. His works, merely philosophical, can do no great injury: though our author loves humanity, man, in society, is his aversion; yet his reasoning, we believe, never drove any one to the banks of the Mississippi or the Ohio. The angle of the conflux of these mighty rivers might furnish an admirable retreat for a philosopher of this kind; and, in a series of ages, it will perhaps afford the site of the first commercial city in the universe. But to return.

The baroness seems to admire Rousseau; and, though not blind to his singularities and his illusions, seems occasionally inclined to admire and defend even his failings. She delineates Rousseau's character from his works: we shall begin with it. In his confessions this lady thinks that he drew from himself; that, conscious of his own goodness, he was not afraid of describing his faults, or that, in reality, to him they did not seem faults.

‘Rousseau must have had a figure not remarkable on a transient view, but which could never be forgotten when once he had been observed speaking. He had little eyes which had no expression of themselves, but successively received that of the different impulses of the mind. His eyebrows were very prominent, and seemed proper to serve his morose senses, and hide him from the sight of men. His head was for the most part hung down, but it was neither flattery nor fear that had lowered it; meditation and melancholy had weighed it down like a flower bent by the storm of its own weight. When he was silent, his physiognomy had no expression; neither his thoughts nor affections were apparent in his visage, except when he took part in conversation; but the moment he ceased speaking, they retired to the bottom of his heart. His features were common; but when he spoke they all acquired the greatest animation. He resembled the gods which Ovid describes to us, sometimes quitting by degrees their terrestrial disguise, and at length discovering themselves by the brilliant rays emanating from their countenance.’

His mind was slow, and his opinions were the result of reflection rather than quick impressions: his genius was creative when left to operate without impediment or controul, and this habit of reflection, with a prepossession that all mankind was combined against him, gave that sable hue to all his opinions, and all his actions. ‘Trifles light as air, were to him confirmations strong as proofs of holy writ.’ Our author is of opinion, page 102, that imagination was his greatest faculty, and ab-

forbed all the rest: she adds, in the page next but one, that, though Rousseau was not a madman, 'one of his faculties, his imagination, was insane:' again, in page 116, she observes, that 'he could be passionately fond of nothing but illusions.' All these confessions amount, we think, very nearly to insanity. The baroness seems to believe that his death was a voluntary one; and, though she is contradicted by the countess de Vassy, who was near Ermonville, and had consequently the best information, the observations, joined to Rousseau's disposition, render the supposition very probable. If we were to give a short character of Rousseau, we should say, that he possessed every excellent quality of the mind except judgment; that his perception and his imagination were acute and vivid; his reflections close and pointed. So far as these went he was supreme; but these qualities, without strong judgment, would lead to paradoxes, to fancies, to sophistry, perhaps to suicide. Add to all, a morbid constitutional melancholy, which clothed every thing in a gloomy veil, and we shall find a Rousseau, in the world, querulous, impatient, petulant, and captious; yet, left to himself, brilliant, inventive, interesting, instructive.

The remarks on Rousseau's different works, form a kind of continued commentary. We have already given the baroness's opinion of the author and his productions. We shall consequently conclude our article with a specimen of the style of her criticisms, which is in general so animated and pleasing as to make her work very entertaining. The passage which we shall transcribe relates to the *New Heloise*; and the defence is a very ingenious one.

'He has described a woman married against her inclinations; having for her husband nothing but esteem, and bearing in her heart the remembrance of former happiness and love for another object; passing her whole life, not in that vortex of the great world, wherein a woman may forget her husband and lover, which permits not any thought or sentiment to reign, extinguishes all passion, and restores calm by confusion, and repose by agitation; but in absolute retirement, alone with M. de Wolmar, in the country, near to nature, and by nature disposed to all the sentiments of the heart which it either inspires or presents to the imagination. It is in this situation Rousseau has described to us Julia, creating to herself a felicity from virtue; happy by the happiness she confers upon her husband, and by the education she intends to give her children; happy by the effect of her example upon those about her, and in the consolation she finds in her confidence in God. This happiness is undoubtedly of another kind; it is more melancholy; it may be tasted of and tears still shed; but it is more proper for beings who are but transient upon the earth which they inhabit; after enjoyment is lost without regret; it is an habitual happiness which we entirely possess unabated either by fear or reflection;

tion; finally, it is one in which devout minds find all the delights love promises to others. It is this pure sentiment, described with so many charms, that renders the novel moral, and which would have made it more so than any other had Julia always presented us, not as the ancients have said, virtue struggling with misfortune, but with passion, still more terrible; and if this pure and unspotted virtue had not lost a part of its charm by resembling repentance.'—

— 'Julia still remains to be justified in not having avowed her fault to M. Wolmar. To have revealed it before her marriage would have been a certain means to render the marriage impossible, and to disappoint her father. After an indissoluble tie had attached her to M. de Wolmar, to destroy the esteem he had for her would have been risking his happiness. I know not but the sacrifice of her delicacy to the tranquillity of another may even be worthy of great admiration. Virtues which in the eyes of mankind differ not from vices are the most difficult to exercise. Is not a confidence in the purity of our intentions, and the elevation of ourselves above the reach of opinion, the character of a disinterested love of that which is good? Yet how should I admire the emotion which gave birth to the resolution to avow all! This I with pleasure observe in Julia, and at the same time I applaud Rousseau, who thought it not enough to oppose in the same person reflection to inclination, but that another person was necessary; that Claire should take upon herself to dissuade Julia from discovering her fault to M. de Wolmar, that Julia might preserve all the charm of her sentiment, and appear rather to be withheld than capable of restraining herself. Whatever the general opinion may be upon this point, it is at least true, that when Rousseau is deceived, it is for the most part in attaching himself to a moral idea, rather than to one of another kind; it is between the virtues he chooses, and the preference he gives that he is alone open to attack, or capable of being defended.'

Oeuvres Posthumes de Frederic II. Roi de Prusse, en 15 Tomes.
8vo. Berlin. Voss et Fils, Decker et Fils.

Oeuvres Posthumes de Frederic II. Roi de Prusse. Parties I. II.
Tom. I. II.

The History of my own Times. Part I. II. Vols. I. II. 7s.
each in Boards. Robinsons.

(Continued from p. 55.)

THE second volume commences with the events of the year 1743 and 1744, as well as of those circumstances which preceded the Prussian war. The king begins with apologising for the apparent solecism which he committed of confiding in a reconciled foe, by observing, that, as his object was the conquest

quest of Silesia, his resources were not sufficient to enable him to cope long with a powerful kingdom; nor was it necessary, as he had obtained his purpose, and as it was not likely that France and Austria could be quickly reconciled. Fleuri died soon after, a minister, in the king's opinion, who was praised too much during his life, and blamed too much after his death; without the haughtiness of Richlieu, or the subtilty of Mazarine, his œconomical spirit healed the wounds which the war of the succession and the system of Law had inflicted, while his talents in negociation preserved the kingdom in prosperity, and acquired the rich province of Lorraine. The dawn of the empress of Germany's good fortune, the retreat of Bellisle from Prague, the affairs in the Baltic, and design of George II. to crush the French, already weakened, are next detailed. Frederick's plan would have been destroyed by this last attempt, and every representation which he could make was employed; but George, 'from his inveterate hatred to the French nation,' was inexorable. The battle of Dettingen, followed, and is described somewhat differently from the account historians have given of it. Lord Stair, it is said, committed the blunder which prevented the supply of forage; and the king's removal to Aschaffembourg is reported only to have been an insufficient measure to repair the negligence: in *effect*, however, it is represented as a faulty position. The battle followed of course, and the defeat of the French is attributed to the movements of the duke de Grammont and the count of Harcourt, to take the allies in *flank*, which prevented the effect of the batteries that were to play on the *rear*; as well as to the activity of an Austrian regiment, which took advantage of the confusion among the French troops, when they found numerous lines, occasioned by the necessity of a narrow front. There are many marks of partiality in this account: in reality, a single circumstance would determine the king of Prussia's bias. When George's horse was frightened, he observes, that the king of England fought on foot, at the head of his English forces. Afterwards, he says, that George stood during the whole time at the head of the Hanoverian battalion, in the posture of a fencing-master, who is just pushing in *carte*. The rest of the campaign was spent in fruitless negotiations, or pretences of treaties; and the affairs of Russia, whose power the Austrians wished to bring to their assistance, as they had drawn with advantage the king of Sardinia to their party, are also detailed. The king's desire of obtaining peace, and of assisting the emperor, he tells us, led him to Germany, to obtain what aid he could from the Germanic body. In the mean time, his own

works of peace, as well as of defence, in case of war, went on rapidly. The conclusion of the year 1743, we shall transcribe from Mr. Holcroft: it is translated advantageously and accurately.

‘ Thus ended the year 1743. All Europe was busied in wars and cabals, the cabinets of princes were more active than their armies; the cause of war was changed; its first end was the support of the house of Austria, its next was projects of conquest. England began to gain an ascendancy in the balance of power, which prognosticated nothing but misfortune to France. The fortitude of the empress-queen degenerated into obstinacy, and the apparent generosity of the king of England into a contemptible interest for his electorate. Russia was still at peace. The king of Prussia, ever occupied in keeping an equilibrium between the belligerent powers, hoped to obtain this purpose, sometimes by amicable insinuations, sometimes by threats, and sometimes even by ostentation. But what are the projects of man? To him the future is hidden: he knows not what shall happen to-morrow. How may he foresee events which a chain of secondary causes may within six months produce? Circumstances often oblige him to act contrary to his intention; and, in the flux and reflux of fortune, prudence has only to conform, to act with consistency, and never to lose sight of her system: it is impossible she should foresee all events.’

The ninth chapter contains the negotiations of 1744, and is, in reality, a continuation of the last. The leading feature of it is the secret alliance between Austria, England, and Saxony, which certainly brought on the ensuing war. The second article, that guaranties to each the territories they *ought to possess*, especially as it was explained by references to treaties existing previous to the conquest of Silesia, awakened the king’s jealousy.

The tenth chapter contains the campaigns in Italy, Flanders, and the Rhine, as well as the campaign of the king. The campaigns in Italy and Flanders are neither brilliant nor interesting; but we must not pass over the incidental mention of the projected descent on England from Dunkirk. The king seems to be of opinion, that the only object was to weaken the army on the Rhine, though cardinal Tencin appears to have had a serious design of placing ‘ Prince Edward’ (Charles) on the throne of England, in return for the cardinal’s hat which he received in consequence of the nomination of James: it was the least return which the pope could make for that prince’s renunciation of three kingdoms, in consequence of his attachment to the mass. When the king of Prussia was called on by England for his contingency, he promised to come at the head of 30,000 men to the assistance of the king; but the offer was suspicious, for the reinforcement was too large.

Of

Of prince Charles of Lorraine's military abilities, the king speaks with respect; but the movements of the French were slow and ill conducted, nor could the marshal de Schmettau, whom Frederick sent for that purpose, inspire them with either spirit or judgment. The king's campaign against the Austrians commenced by penetrating, in concert with his allies, into Bohemia, and obliging the empress-queen to recall her troops from Alsace. It was rendered brilliant by the siege and conquest of Prague; but from mismanagement after that event, a conduct which Frederick imputes to his complaisance and yielding to the opinion of his allies, contrary to his better judgment, little advantage was drawn from it. The Prussian army was straitened in its quarters, distressed for provisions, and sometimes insulted in its camp, while the Austrians, by their strong positions, prevented every attack which the king meditated. Marshal Traun and prince Charles of Lorraine, by their skilful movements, reduced Frederick almost to the necessity of giving up either Prague or Silesia; and at last obliged him to repass the Elbe at Kolin, the only post, with that of Pardubitz, which kept up the communication with each place. Notwithstanding the king's precautions, prince Charles passed the Elbe, though he was successfully opposed for five hours by a single Prussian battalion, under lieutenant-colonel Wedel, who, by this action, acquired the title of Leonidas. This decided the resolution of Frederick; Prague was abandoned, and his army retreated in good order into Silesia, without effecting any one purpose which was designed.

* No general committed more faults than did the king, during this campaign. The first, certainly, was that of not providing magazines sufficient to maintain his army six months in Bohemia. It is well known that, to raise the great superstructure of an army, it must be remembered the belly is the foundation. But this was not all: he entered Saxony, although he knew that the Saxons had acceded to the treaty of Worms; therefore, he either should have obliged them to change sides, or have crushed them before he had set foot in Bohemia. He laid siege to Prague, and sent a feeble detachment to Beraun against Bathiani. Had not the troops enacted prodigies of valour, they must have been lost. Prague being taken, good policy certainly required he should immediately march with the half of his army against Bathiani; ruin him before the arrival of prince Charles, and take the magazine of Pilsen; the loss of which would have prevented the return of the Austrians into Bohemia. They would have been obliged again to have amassed subsistence, which requires time; so that, to them, the campaign would

have been lost. If sufficient zeal were not shewn in supplying the Prussian magazines, the fault must not be imputed to the king, but to the contractors, who received the money and left the magazines.

‘But how might the king have the weakness to adopt marshal de Belleisle’s project for the campaign, which led him to Tabor and Budweis, when he himself allowed that this project was neither conformable to present circumstances, his own interest, nor the laws of war? It is erroneous to carry condescension too far. The commission of this error drew on numerous others. Was he justified in putting his army into cantonments, when the enemy was encamped within a march of his quarters? The advantage of the campaign was wholly for the Austrians. Marshal Traun acted the part of Sertorius, and the king that of Pompey. The conduct of the marshal is a perfect model, which every general who delights in his profession ought to study, and if he has the abilities to imitate. The king himself owned that he regarded that campaign as his school in the art of war, and Traun as his preceptor. Good fortune is often more fatal to princes than adversity: during the former they are intoxicated with presumption, the second renders them circumspect and modest!’

The eleventh chapter contains miscellaneous transactions of the first part of the year 1745. Early in January, the Austrians invaded Upper Silesia, while the supposed panic of the Prussians lasted; but they were defeated with disgrace, and returned to winter-quarters. The negotiations with France, the death of the emperor Charles VII. and the intrigues which the prospect of an election excited, next follow. The candidates were the grand-duke of Tuscany and the king of Poland (Augustus, elector of Saxony). The latter had insulted and opposed the king in every attempt; but no opposition was made, because the king knew that the crown of Poland was a perpetual barrier to his attempt. The king of France, who favoured Augustus, was therefore complimented with Frederick’s apparent acquiescence; but the negotiations relating to the ensuing campaign were not very pleasing to the king, who saw clearly that France only employed the allies to favour her views in Flanders. He attempted to negotiate for peace with England; but the treaty of Warsaw, as he was informed by lord Chesterfield, ‘the greatest genius and the most eloquent man in England,’ shackled the opinions of the Pelham party, then in administration; and the fixed inveteracy of the king counteracted every attempt. About this time too the young elector of Bavaria, by the artifices, the impositions, and, as is insinuated, by the forgeries of Seckendorf, concluded a separate peace at Füssen with the queen

queen of Hungary : so that with half Europe leagued against it, Russia only inactive by the force of its gold, with a ray of the returning favour of England, the fame and fortunes of Prussia were staked on the event of the ensuing campaign.

The twelfth chapter relates to the campaign in Italy and Flanders, and to what passed on the Rhine previous to the operation of the Prussian troops in Silesia. In Italy, the Bourbons were successful ; in Flanders they gained the battle of Fontenoy, and the city of Tournay. In this battle the allies were, at first, evidently victorious ; and the change of fortune was seemingly owing to the spirit and good conduct of count Saxe, who charged the victorious troops with the French guards and the Irish brigade, while he played on them, at the same time, from some batteries hastily formed : the king has observed, that the generals of the allies did not know how to make a proper use of the advantage which they had gained. Louis afterwards reinforced his army in Flanders, by a detachment from that on the Rhine, seduced, as Frederick tells us, by the artifices of count Bruhl, who persuaded the French ambassador, that the only means of obtaining an advantageous peace from the queen of Hungary was not to oppose the election of the grand-duke ; and, in order to show this disposition, the army on the Rhine was to be rendered inactive :—a mode of conduct which is not only unreasonable in itself, but of which the motive appears to be unlikely. Gand, (Ghent) Bruges, Oudenarde, Nieupoort, Dendermonde, Ostend, and Ath surrendered in succession, and marshal Saxe put his troops into winter-quarters, covered with laurels. The king's object in the campaign was not to follow prince Charles into Lorraine ; but to keep close to the defiles and attack him the moment he left them to pass into Upper Silesia ; at the same time foraging along the frontiers of Silesia : the skirmishing, which was a prelude to the war, particularly the action of Jägersdorf, which the king owns is represented as more important than it really was, to give spirit and confidence to the Prussian cavalry, who there were first distinguished, conclude the chapter.

The battle of Friedberg was the consequence of the king's plan ; and it was completely and decisively successful, from the stratagem of alluring prince Charles to attack what he thought a defenceless enemy, and from the steady valour of the Prussians.

' This was the third, but not the last battle, fought to decide to whom Silesia appertained. When sovereigns play for provinces, the lives of men are but as counters. Stratagem prepared,

valour fought, the battle. Had not prince Charles been deceived by his spies, who were themselves deceived, he never could so stupidly have fallen into the snare that had been spread. This confirms the maxim, that those principles should never be departed from, which the art of war prescribes; and that circumspection should invariably be attended to, which obliges all commanders never to swerve from rules which their own safety, and the execution of their projects, exact; even when every thing favour such meditated projects, the surest way is, never to so far despise the enemy as to suppose him incapable of resistance. Chance never resigns its rights. In this very action, a mistake had nearly become fatal to the Prussians. At the beginning of the battle, the king drew ten battalions from the second line, under the command of lieutenant-general Kalckstein, to reinforce the corps of du Moulin, and sent one of his aid du camps to order the margrave, Charles, to take the command of the second line of infantry, during the absence of Kalckstein. The blundering aid du camp told the margrave to reinforce the second line, with his brigade, which was at the extremity of the left. The king perceived the mistake in time, and rectified it with promptitude. Had prince Charles profited by this false motion, he might have taken the left of the Prussians in flank, which was not yet supported by the rivulet of Striegau. On trifles like these do the destiny of kingdoms and the renown of generals depend, good or ill fortune is decided in an instant. Yet must it be confessed, the bravery of the troops who fought at Friedberg considered, the state ran no risk. Not a single corps was repulsed. Of sixty-four battalions, twenty-seven only were in action, and carried the victory. The world rest not more securely on the shoulders of Atlas than Prussia on such an army.

Though the king's language breathes intoxication, he did not quit his former plan. He 'eat up' the frontiers of Bohemia, to which he had pursued prince Charles, and was contented. He might perhaps have done more, for the Saxons, over-awed by a Prussian army near Halle, recalled the greater part of the troops; and the reinforcements which prince Charles received were inadequate. At this period, the convention of Hanover was signed; and a description of the intrigues which preceded the diet and influenced the election in favour of the grand duke, follows.

Various circumstances prevented the empress-queen and the king of Poland from acceding to the convention of Hanover; and the war was again carried on with vigour. The Austrians, with the assistance of the eager impetuous prince Lobkowitz, who, with the duke of Aremberg, had been sent to urge on prince Charles, were turbulent and vexatious: but another battle, that of Sorr, in which Frederick was again
success-

successful, changed the fortune of the campaign. The king, as usual, plays the after-game, and expatiates on his own errors, as well as those of his antagonists. He kept, however, steadily to his first plan, and did not entangle his army in the woods and defiles of Bohemia, where they might have been starved or cut off, in detail, by the irregular Pandours. At the battle of Sorr, the king had only 18,000 men opposed to 40,000 : he, however, wintered in Silesia, to which he retreated, *not without molestation*, after he had consumed all the forage on the frontiers.

The rebellion in Scotland fixed the attention of France and England. The empress-queen now saw, in her own opinion, the king without an ally, and thought him an easy conquest. It was even designed to send the army, under prince Charles, to Saxony, and to fall on Berlin in the winter, in concert with the Saxon troops. The Swedish ambassador at Dresden discovered the secret, which count Bruhl incautiously betrayed ; and, from the connexion in consequence of the marriage between the heir-elective of Sweden with the king's sister, was induced to give a timely information. Frederick, by a forced winter's campaign, crushed the venom in its egg ; but he still held out the same moderate overtures of peace. He was unwilling to demand any cession from Saxony, as common injuries would have united Poland more closely with Austria, and his object was to separate them. At the same time, he gave a proof of moderation to all Europe, if possible to lessen the bad impressions which his conduct respecting Silesia had occasioned. The old prince of Anhalt perplexed Frederick by his caution and delay ; but made full amends by his glorious victory at Kesseldorf, a victory that terminated a war which caused only an useless effusion of blood ; except it be supposed, that repeated victories confirmed the possession of Silesia.

The first cares of the king of Prussia all tended to the re-establishment of his army. He chiefly recruited it by the Austrian and Saxon prisoners ; of whom he had his choice. Thus were his troops completed at the expence of foreigners ; and it did not cost the country more than seven thousand men, to repair the losses that so many bloody battles had occasioned. Since the art of war has been so well understood in Europe, and policy has established a certain balance of power between sovereigns, grand enterprizes but rarely produce such effects as might be expected. An equality of forces, alternate loss and success, occasion the opponents, at the end of the most desperate war, to find themselves much in the same state of reciprocal strength as at the commencement. Exhausted treasures at length are productive of peace ; which ought to be the work of humanity,

not of necessity. In a word, if the fame of, and respect due to, arms merit efforts for that attainment, Prussia, by gaining these, found a recompense for the second war she had undertaken : but this was all she found. Yet did this vapour inspire new envy.'

The third volume of the original is in reality a continuation of the same subject, though it appears to be a very different work. It is entitled the History of the Seven Years War.

In the preface, which is dated at Potsdam, the 3d of March, 1764, the king states his reasons for undertaking this second work. He says, (we now translate from the original), ' he has had in view two principal objects: the one to demonstrate to posterity that he could not possibly avoid this war, and that the honour and welfare of his kingdom prevented him from consenting to peace, upon any other conditions than those which were obtained at its conclusion; the other, to detail all the military operations with as much perspicuity and precision as possible, in order to leave an authentic account of the advantageous and disadvantageous situations that occur in the provinces and kingdoms into which the war must be carried, whenever the house of Brandenburg shall happen to be embroiled with that of Austria.' With regard to this second object the king had in view, we suspect, that this publication will be of full as much service to the Austrians as to the Prussians, unless the latter could confine to themselves the perusal of it. The preface contains likewise some general observations relative to encampments. That they are excellent in their kind no one will doubt.

The first chapter of this part of the work before us, contains an account of the internal government of Prussia and Austria during the peace which was concluded in 1746. After a very handsome eulogium on the virtues and legislative abilities of his chancellor Coccej, the king informs us that he employed himself during this tranquil interval in forming a new code of laws, which was promulgated '*after it had been approved by the states*;' in reforming the courts of judicature; in draining marshes; in building two hundred and eighty new villages; in encouraging manufactures, and the breed of silk-worms; in short, in pursuing every measure to promote and increase the population of the kingdom. What great good may be brought about by the efforts of one man possessed of kingly power, great abilities, and patriotic virtues, appears by the following extract: 'As it is certain, that the riches of a state consist in the number of its subjects, Prussia might at this time be reckoned doubly as powerful as she was
in

in the last years of Frederick-William, father of the king.¹ We are next presented with a particular detail of the new regulations introduced into the Prussian and Austrian armies, by the perusal of which military men will be much entertained and improved.

The second chapter opens with a short account of the continuation of the war by the Austrians and English on one side, and the French and Spaniards on the other, which was put an end to by the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748. Next follows a history of the successful negotiations and intrigues of the empress of Germany during the peace, by which she formed the powerful confederacy of the Austrians, the French, the Russians, and the Swedes against the Prussians. Her grand object was to recover Silesia, which she had given up to the king of Prussia, with so much regret, by the late peace of Dresden.

We come now to the third chapter, which brings down the history to the declaration of war in 1756. The author attributes the rupture between France and England to the secret machinations of the late duke of Cumberland, who, he says, wished to plunge the nation into a war, in hopes that some sinister accident would occur to render the duke of Newcastle unpopular, and open the way to the promotion of Mr. Fox. He adds, that previous to the breaking out of the war, 'all the unjustifiable proceedings were on the side of the English.' We must here again observe, that through all these volumes, the king manifests a very strong partiality for the French. This bias may, in some measure, be accounted for, by his predilection for their language and literature, and his warm attachment through life to several individuals of that nation. — But it is not easy to proceed farther, without engaging in our author's particular account of the war: we shall, therefore, resume the volume in another Number.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

WE shall now perform the promise in our Appendix, by giving some account of the different meteorological observations, a subject which the extreme cold of last winter, and the numerous publications which it has occasioned, renders interesting. We shall bring together the different facts which we have been able to collect from various sources, either publications which cannot from their place make in any other respect a part of our Journal, or more private communications, which would not probably have otherwise appeared. But, as we find some miscellaneous memoirs on similar subjects, which we have not yet

yet introduced, we shall follow, in some degree, the order of their appearance.

Some meteorological observations made by M. de Prielong, at Goree, in the year 1787, are the first in our list: he observes, that from the 15th of May to the beginning of December, the thermometer stood constantly above 24° (we suppose of Reaumur) equal to 86° of Fahrenheit, except on the days of rain, or of hurricanes, when it generally sunk eight or nine degrees*: the time of observation was generally about the middle of the day. In the year 1787, there were sixteen or eighteen hurricanes; our author seems not to have been able to measure the quantity of rain, but he assures his correspondent, M. de Romé del'Isle, that there must have been more than 50 inches, two and a half times as much as at Paris: yet the inhabitants told him that this had been one of their driest seasons. The greater part of these hurricanes raised the barometer from the one-twelfth to the sixth part of an inch, a fact not a little singular; others have sunk it as much; and some did not at all affect it. During the whole of the rainy season there was scarcely any vapour or dew. The 27th of September was the hottest day of the whole year; the thermometer was at $97^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$, and continued there more than an hour. In some years it is said to rise from 104 to $106^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$; but about 100° appears to be the mean heat of five or six years, for Senegal as well as Goree. This island is indeed more southerly than Senegal, but it is higher and less sandy. M. Moneron has assured our author, that at Mausulipatam, the thermometer has risen to 118° ; and, at Podor, about fifty or sixty leagues from the Island of St. Louis, on the river Senegal, an officer, who resided there more than a year, has seen it, in a northerly situation, and in the shade, at 131° ! The heat is said to have resembled that at the mouth of a hot oven; the troops stationed there were greatly reduced in numbers; and those who returned from it were generally affected with violent fevers or extreme debility. The post is now abandoned; but it was said that the heat of Senegal was nearly a mean between the heats of Podor and of France: Senegal is a little hotter than Cayenne, where the heat is said to be between seventy and ninety-two, nearly. The measures of heat taken at Goree are in a northerly situation, and in the shade, for in the sun it is at least fourteen degrees higher, and in the sand as much above the heat of the sun. The hurricanes come from between the north-east and the south-east: the first and most violent come from the south-east, turn a little towards the south, and even pass that point near their conclusion. About the end of September, or the beginning of October, two or three come from the north-east; and these are

* We shall translate the degrees as we go on to those of Fahrenheit, without employing Dr. Martine's correction, as the thermometers now employed by the French are generally mercurial ones, and the correction relates to the strength of spirit.

very

very violent. Neither rain nor storms come from any other quarter of the heavens, and it must be remarked, that the direction is wholly from the inland parts. The earth perhaps, highly charged with electrical matter, meets with conductors in the clouds, and explodes with violence. The explosion is communicated to the other clouds, and makes a furious and sudden decomposition, accompanied with the usual winds.

M. Reynier, who has passed much time on the Alps, has offered us some meteorological observations, which we shall introduce in this place. In the morning, the vapours, condensed by the coldness of the night, rise along the mountains, in proportion as the sun rises above the horizon. When the weather will be fine, they glide uniformly on the brink of the mountain, and rise over it by a regular motion, somewhat slow. When rain impends, the motion is irregular, they are alternately attracted and repelled by the mountain, and rise like elastic bodies rebounding. In a stormy season, particularly, when there will be hail, the motions are still more rapid and irregular. This observation may be confirmed in the mountainous countries of Great Britain: we have seen it among the mountains of Cumberland, particularly in the neighbourhood of Keswick. M. Reynier observes, and the observation is sufficiently near the surface not to be overlooked, that the appearance is electrical.

Before we proceed to the colds observed during last winter, we shall give an account of some anonymous observations on frost, cold, lightning, and thunder. This author's first principle is undoubtedly erroneous, for he thinks that, as heat proceeds from igneous particles, so cold is produced by particles of a different and opposite nature. His observations are, however, minute, and generally correct. It does not appear, indeed, that clouds are owing to excess of humidity; at least, in M. Saussure's language, during thick clouds the hydrometrical affinity of the water is often very inconsiderable. The harmattan also, the driest wind that we are acquainted with, is generally attended with a cloudy sky. Our author does not properly distinguish between clouds and fogs: of the cause of fogs his account is just. In his observations on frost, he remarks, that in December of last year it penetrated to caverns and wells, where the water was never frozen before. The particular matter of cold is, he thinks, the electrical fluid; but the only proofs are, that in cold air electricity is very conspicuous: we know that ice is not a conductor. Electricity, he allows, is equally apparent in storms, and from a similar cause, since dry air conducts very imperfectly. Our author is obliged at last to admit, that the electrical fluid, combined with subtilized inflammable substances, forms also the matter of thunder: this fluid plays very different and opposite parts; indeed it has served very effectually every system-builder, since the first discoveries of Dr. Franklin.

Father Cotte, from whom we have at times received very impor-

important meteorological remarks, has described in a very correct and elaborate memoir, the cold of the winter 1788 and 1789, compared with the severe winters of the last fourteen years. He begins with examining the temperature of the summer and autumn of 1788, and points out, as the first fact of importance, the violent hail which fell in July, while the heat was suffocating. From this event he argues, that the cold above must have been very considerable; and he even suspects that it may have been the cause of the apparent heat of the autumn, as the heat must have been attracted from the earth to restore the equilibrium, and would be for a time confined near it by the density of the inferior strata. The cold commenced, he says, pretty smartly on the 25th of November, and it froze every day except on the 25th of December, when a thaw came on and lasted twenty-four hours. This thaw was very general and extensive; we have received accounts of it through more than 15° of longitude, and it probably extended much farther, as well as considerably in latitude. What can be the cause of an alteration so general, so extensive, and so sudden? On the 26th of November it snowed; and the quantity, for France, was very great. On November 28th, December 2d, 6th, 16th, 19th, 21st, 24th, 26th, 27th, and 31st; — January 1st, 6th, 9th, 11th, and 13th the cold increased in its intensity, seemingly by starts. The coldest day by the thermometer, in France, was the 31st of December; but seemingly the most insupportable cold occurred the 6th of January, by means of a very sharp north-east wind. A wind from the south blew on the 31st of December, and succeeded the north wind, which blew away towards noon the icy vapours that the south wind brought back again. The same observation occurred in 1709, and on the same day of the year 1783. The sky, our author observes, was usually clear; the prevailing winds were the north and north-east. When it occasionally blew from the south, it became cloudy, and snow followed; but the wind returned to the north, and the cold came with its former severity.

The thaw commenced the 13th of January at noon, and proceeded slowly: though it did not freeze after that time, the weather continued very cold till the 23d of January. February, March, and a part of April, were very wet. The frost returned the 4th of March, and continued very nearly to the end of the month. The melting of the snow was completed only about the 8th or 10th of February; it furnished, in father Cotte's udometer, $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches of water; and if, as our author calculates, snow is reduced in melting seven-eighths, we shall find that there fell twenty-eight inches of snow*. The ice melted very slowly in pits, wells, and rivers; it is said to have been from 24 to 30 inches in thickness. Some ponds were wholly frozen, and the fish destroyed: where they were preserved it was chiefly owing

* It does not really amount to quite so much, but father Cotte wrote half a line, and calculated half an inch; we have preserved the half inch. The difference is not above one-sixth.

so apertures being made in the ice. We remember to have seen ponds very wisely covered with straw for the same purpose. When the apertures were made, it was necessary to keep them constantly open, for it has happened that the water froze while the fish was breathing, and the animal was killed in a very singular manner, by being frozen between two laminæ of ice. The thaw was very fatal in destroying bridges, occasionally blocking up the course of the rivers, and thus causing inundations. The last chiefly happened when it thawed soonest near the source of the river. The Loire, the Soane, and even the rapid Rhone were frozen: the sea was frozen on the coasts of Laon, where our author resided; and every one knows that the birds of the North were very frequent on our coasts.

Father Cotte next considers the effects on the human body, on animals, and vegetables. On the human body it produced the usual effects; but, though placed where the cold was not most violent, we saw instances which we never remember to have read of. Some old people, with all the comforts and conveniences which opulence can furnish, and in situations where nothing was wanting, actually sunk, without apparent disease, from the merely debilitating effects of cold. Every one, attentive to his own feelings, must have perceived the want of vigour, cheerfulness, and activity, which moderate cold imparts, and, in its stead, found weakness, inactivity, and low spirits. We well remember that we never felt greater difficulties in writing: what we observed in p. 139 of our last volume, was truly from the feelings in the moment of the frost's greatest intensity. Animals suffered in proportion as they were exposed to the cold. The toes of chickens were frozen; sheep, which were shut up, died in great numbers, and lost their wool, while those in the open air escaped. Cows, which scarcely went out of the stable, and were indifferently fed, gave very little milk. Horses suffered very little; but game of all kinds, with a great variety of little birds, died of hunger: even those which escaped could not for a long time recover their strength; as the cold was also fatal to a variety of insects on which they fed. Vines, particularly the buds of the vine, suffered greatly, so that many were cut down level with the ground: pears also were much damaged. Apple, peach, and apricot trees; indeed every tree whose fruit has a kernel, escaped more easily. The oranges, olives, and pomegranates were almost entirely killed; and the fruit in the store-rooms were greatly injured. The great mischief done in the field was by the ice, which froze on the trees and the buds. Such was the state in France: in most of these respects we fared better.

Our author then gives the result of his table, which contains observations of the greatest cold in 110 different cities. From this it appears that the intensity of the cold did not, as may be expected, follow the order of the latitudes: the cold, for instance, was sharper in some cities of Germany than at Peterfburg; more severe at Paris than in other cities to the North, as
Laon,

Laon, Cambrai, Brussels, &c. Much of this difference appears to be owing to the elevation, though other circumstances of situation occur. The cold seems to have been more severe in Germany than in any other part of Europe from whence we have received any observations. The greatest cold occurred in Russia about the 12th of December; in a part of Germany and Poland about the 17th or 18th of the same month; in France on the 31st, and in Holland on the 5th of January; in the south of England on the 17th and 18th of December. When it was at its height in France, it was lessened in Germany and Poland, as well as in some parts even of that kingdom. The mean cold in France was $15^{\circ}.3$ * (-3); of Germany $21^{\circ}.5$ ($-15\frac{1}{2}$); of the cities of Holland $14^{\circ}.9$ (-2); of the south of England, which we quote chiefly on account of the mildness of the climate, $+27^{\circ}.4$ of Fahrenheit. If one day, on which the thermometer stood at 13° , be excepted, and which seems owing to a sharp north-easterly wind, the mean cold would be much less; for the next lowest number, which, if we recollect rightly, was 23, occurs only on the 15th and 16th of December. The lowest point was on the 18th.

Father Corte then adds the comparative colds; and we find the result of observations, taken in thirty-two cities in the winter of 1776, was $17^{\circ}.4$ (-8). In 1782, the result of 23 cities, $7^{\circ}.8$ ($+16$.) In 1783 and 1784, from 83 cities, $15^{\circ}.8$ (-3); and in the last winter, from 110 cities, 17° ($-6\frac{1}{2}$). The intensity of the cold has been therefore exceeded; but the continuance of it produced the very violent effects. In 1782 and 1783, we remember the thermometer to have been much lower than the point at which it usually stood last winter, but the violence of the cold did not exceed four or five days: it now lasted fifty.

On the same subject we find some remarks from M. Van Swinden, professor of natural philosophy at Amsterdam. Even in the small district of Holland, he observes, that the cold was unequal. The least cold was at the capital of Holland $13^{\circ}.5$ ($1\frac{1}{2}$), and the greatest at Haderwick $17^{\circ}.3$ (-7). The professor thinks it was more severely felt in the south of Europe than in Holland. He remarks the great height of the barometer on the 4th, 5th, and 6th of January, notwithstanding the hard frost, for it is not common to have severe and continued frosts when the barometer is very high. On the 5th the barometer was at 28 inches .0.7 lines, Paris measure, which exceeds the greatest height observed by more than half a line,

* If these degrees are below 0 of Reaumur, the cold must be very great indeed. —0 of Fahrenheit answers to 14 two-ninths of Reaumur, and each degree of Reaumur is equal to two one-fourth of Fahrenheit. If this is the author's meaning, our readers must correct the numbers as they are inserted between brackets. We first considered them as Fahrenheit's degrees, but we suspect we were in an error. The English observations are from Fahrenheit.

viz. the heights observed on the 2d of January 1761, January 27th, 1766, and the 26th of December, 1778. If we can make allowance for the difference of situation, we think it was higher than either on the 18th of December 1782, when it rose very nearly to 30 inches and a half ($30\frac{1}{2}$) at about 130 feet above the level of the sea. The same barometer, on the day which the professor points out, January 5th of this year, was at 30.6, so general was this extraordinary elevation. Our author observes, on the contrary, that the barometer was very low on the 14th of January, at eight o'clock in the evening, viz. at 27 inches 4.6 lines. In the Journal before us, communicated by a very respectable correspondent, it was lowest on the 13th, viz. at 28.87; and the lowest point at which we have ever seen the barometer, in this situation, was at $28\frac{1}{2}$, and it occurred on the 9th of February 1783, the day after the great earthquake which desolated Calabria.

The observations on this great cold which next occur, were, made at Valence in Dauphiné, by M. de Roziere, a captain in the corps of engineers. Reaumur's thermometer was for many days from 3 to 6° ($26\frac{1}{2}$ to $21\frac{1}{2}$); it sunk on the 20th of December to 9° ($11\frac{1}{2}$), and on the 24th, when the Rhone froze, it was at 11° ($7\frac{1}{2}$ of Fahrenheit), but on the 31st it was 15° (—2). The Rhone was completely fixed on the 27th of December, and remained so to the 13th of January: in some parts it was said to be frozen to the bottom. The weather was generally clear and the wind from the north.

The abbé Dicquemaire's last legacy to the public was a description of the cold, as he observed it at Havre. It began there on the 24th of November 1788, and continued to the 13th of January 1789. His instrument was a spirit thermometer, and the liquor sunk to ten degrees below 0. If we allow Martine's correction, as we should do, it will amount to 16°. It sunk no lower.

The next observer whom we shall follow, is M. Flaugergues, at Viviers. He tells us that the greatest cold, which M. Messier observed at Paris, was on the 31st, when it was at —15.57, about —2, which answers to 17°.65 of M. de Luc's thermometer. We mention this to observe that in the latter instrument, which, like Saussure's, has the division between boiling water and freezing ice divided into 80 degrees, a mixture of salt and snow sunk the mercury to —17°. This ought to correspond with 0 of Fahrenheit, if the instruments were equally good, but, in reality, it is somewhat lower. In the year 1709, De la Hire's thermometer sunk to —5, which Reaumur found to amount to about $15\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of his spirit thermometer; so that our author concludes it was seven hundredths of a degree colder in the last winter than at that memorable æra. But we must here employ Dr. Martine's correction, and we shall then find the cold greater in the last winter by 10 degrees of Fahrenheit, for M. Messier's was 'a mercurial thermometer.' The coldest time of the year 1716 was on the 23d of January, when

when De la Hire's thermometer sunk to 4, which our author tells us is equal to about 15.7 of Reaumur, so that the cold of 1716 exceeded by $\frac{1}{4}$ that of last winter: in reality, if allowance be made for the weakness of Reaumur's spirit, the cold of that year was inferior to what we felt in 1788, 1789. Reaumur's thermometer at Viviers was one degree below that at Paris, and in 1776 was at $13\frac{1}{4}$. The barometer was at $38\frac{1}{4}$ inches; and the earth opened on the 9th of January was found to be frozen so far as $21\frac{1}{2}$ th inches.

M. Arnaud de St. Maurice tells us that the ice in the Seine, on the 31st of December, was $16\frac{1}{2}$ inches; the thermometer, at five in the afternoon, was 12 degrees of Reaumur below frost; but, in the water, was a degree and half above frost. When the thermometer was at -11 , placed in a sewer it rose to $+4$; in a well to $+5\frac{1}{2}$; and in a cellar, at midnight, it was still at 0. When the sewer was opened, a quantity of whitish vapour came out, which, when collected, was found to afford a very clear water, of a sharpish taste, but not unpleasant, probably alkaline air, with an excess of fixed air, forming an aminoniacal salt by their union.

To conclude this subject, we wished to have given some account of the winter of 1739-40, and its comparative cold; but, after many enquiries, we can find no observations that we can depend on, or that are easily understood. We forgot to insert in its proper place some remarkable degrees of cold from P. Cotte's table at Basle in Switzerland; the cold on the 18th of December was 30° , which, if accurately measured with Reaumur's mercurial thermometer, must have been equal to $-34\frac{1}{2}$ of Fahrenheit: at Breslone, in Germany, it was $28^{\circ}.5$, equal to -31 ; and at St. Albans, in England, $28\frac{1}{2}$ of Fahrenheit; at Warsaw, in Poland, 26° of Fahrenheit; at Dresden, Erlang, Edsbury, Inspruck, and Petersburg, it was scarcely two degrees less.

The freezing of the Rhine was this year attended, very remarkably, with some circumstances which we have formerly noticed, viz. ice formed on the ground. On the vast caiks made at Coblenz, Cologne, and Mayence, the years of the severe frosts, which fix the Rhine, and render it sufficiently stable to admit of fairs being held on it, are often engraved. What, however, establishes the fact in question is, that, in the ice, large rounded stones are frequently found, and they are seen at different depths, for the ice of the Rhine is very transparent, since its bottom is sandy or stony: no sand is however entangled in it, for the ground-ice seems to require some solid body on which it may fix, and which would favour the shooting of its crystals.

As an instrument subservient to meteorology, but which has never yet been applied in England to this purpose, we must again introduce the hygrometer, and we shall finish our sketch with what has been observed on this subject since we last attended

tended to it. M. Riché of Paris constructs hygrometers on the principle of M. Saussure, and they are said to excel the instruments contrived by that very able philosopher. The body acted on is hair; but eight hairs are employed, and their united force is sufficient to conquer the vis inertia of a needle, which weighs eight grains. The greatest drought brings the needle to 38° , and the greatest moisture to 100° . We apprehend that the instrument succeeds very well: a plate of it is inserted in the last volume of the *Journal de Physique*, from whence our description is taken.

We formerly remarked, in our account of the dispute between M. de Luc and Saussure, that the hair hygrometer often goes beyond the point of extreme moisture. M. Geoffroy gives a singular fact of this kind, without attempting to explain it. The situation of his hygrometer is peculiar and convenient. He has taken a square from one of his windows, and in its room he has placed the instrument, inclosing it with glass, within and without, so that by opening either side, he can measure the moisture of the room or of the open air. He found that the needle sometimes passed the hundredth degree, and he employed the remedy that M. Saussure mentions, viz. putting the instrument into a moistened vessel, where it was subjected to extreme humidity. But, in the *Meteorological Journal of Toulouse*, on July 14th, 1785, the hair hygrometer appears to have been at 101° ; on the 27th of August it was at the same point; on the 25th of September 104 ; and on the 4th of October 103 . These variations occur also in 1786. Our author, fearing that his instrument was defective, procured another from the original artist, M. Paul, which, in the moistened receiver, stood at 100° ; yet, on the 24th of September, at nine in the evening, it stood at 103 . The wind was at the east, the sky partly clouded; the barometer at 28 inches and one-sixth; the thermometer at 16° (68° of Fahrenheit). On another day in the same month, nearly in similar circumstances, the instrument was at $102\frac{1}{2}$. On the 5th of February, 1788, at nine in the evening, it was at 103 . The barometer was as before, the wind south-east, the sky cloudy, and the clouds in large masses and low. Yet, in each day, the instrument in the moistened vessel stood at 100° . Our author is director of the canal of Languedoc, and his lodging is on the banks of the river: Toulouse too, though at forty leagues distance, and 421 feet above the Mediterranean, is also near a river: the same event occurred to M. Saussure on the banks of the Lake of Geneva. The appearance has not been satisfactorily accounted for; nor do we see clearly the reason of it. We suspect that the close vessel does not really impart the degree of extreme humidity, and that the rooth degree should be placed farther on the scale. It will be obvious that these extraordinary degrees of moisture occurred in the open air; and the experiments with the moistened vessel were made in a room. The air may have been there.

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fore in different states, and differently calculated to communicate or imbihe moisture. The close vessel too may influence, after some time, the hydrometrical affinity of the hair: so that it would undoubtedly be better to adjust the scale in a thick fog, or in a low cloudy sky, when the wind blows over water; for we then know, by other experiments, that the air is in the best state for imparting moisture.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O E T R Y.

Poems by Anthony Pasquin. Two Volumes. 12mo. 5s. Strahan.

ON a careful perusal, or rather reperusal of these volumes, for most of their contents we have seen before, we can discover but one poetical qualification in their author, and that is INVENTION. He observes, in a note, that 'a Northumbrian ecclesiastic, who, like many more of our modern idlers, would become a poet in despite of fate, wrote a poem entitled PEACE; and, with a degree of cunning which is almost peculiar to the inhabitants of the North, determined to have a brilliant account of his performance in all the Reviews; as his bookseller informed him of the means by which these accounts were obtained, it was resolved to send a guinea with a copy to every Reviewer, and as soon as the point was gained, to reprint a new title-page, signifying to the public that it was the tenth edition. All the superintendants, excepting Dr. Kenrick, who, at that time edited the London Review, pocketed the bribe, and discharged their consciences, by giving the donor *a guinea's worth of praise!* But the doctor, who felt as a poet himself, for the dignity of genius, advertised the work on the cover of the Review as a recompence for the money, but gave such an account of the parson's efforts in the body of the repository, as probably discouraged the divine from any further poetical flights.'

On referring to our index, we found a poem entitled *Peace*, reviewed in vol. LVII. p. 153. If this is the work alluded to, our readers will not think that its author's munificence influenced our judgments very violently in its favour. On looking farther back, vol. XXXVII. p. 473. we found another poem on PEACE, which was called *middling*. A phrase which Anthony's classical knowledge must inform him, when applied to verse, is always taken in a derogatory sense; not equal to the *so so* of Touchstone, but rather resembling 'a negative quantity in algebra, somewhat worse than nothing,' for

*mediocribus esse poetas
Non dei, non homines, non concessere columnæ.*

We hope in another edition he will shew some judgment as well as intention, which he might do by informing the public that the author's guinea which he sent us, for we and all our brethren,

the immaculate Dr. Kenrick excepted, are included, 'had not its desired effect, owing to his particular enemy's sending us two at the same time, which necessarily more than counterbalanced its weight. The charge at present, like the snake whose head contained an antidote against its venom, carries its acquittal with it. The reader might as well suspect Anthony of having been bribed by Mr. John Kemble. If in future, however, he wishes us to speak well of his poetical labours, we hope he will not take the following hint amiss: namely, to double the usual premium, for unless he should write much better than he does at present, we cannot for less, consistently with our * *conscience*, speak with any tolerable degree of approbation of such crude and ill-digested compositions.

Prudence: a Moral, Poetical Essay. To which is subjoined a Version of the eighth Chapter of Proverbs. 8vo. 1s. Scatcherd and Whitaker.

The author 'being minded to amuse a few unbusied moments with the pleasures of poetry, it was dictated (does he mean through the impulse of his own mind, or the advice of others) to versify a selection of Solomon's Proverbs.' Many of these he has arranged in some degree of order, and connected with the virtue that gives name to the principal poem. The performance is more worthy of commendation for the morality it inculcates than for the mode in which it is executed.

The Fane of the Druids. A Poem. Book the Second. By the Author of the first Book. 4to. 2s. Murray.

We took notice of the first book, which treated of the origin of the Druidical institution, in Vol. LXVI. p. 88. Its decline is here considered, and a sketch given of characters and occurrences in the northern part of Great Britain, from the extinction of the order to the conclusion of the 16th century. Should the present attempt meet with approbation, 'the author proposes to complete his plan in a subsequent book, by tracing society from its origin, to its establishment in Scotland in the present times: in conducting which, he will have occasion not only to consider the great transactions from the beginning of the 17th century down to this time, wherein the Scottish nation bore a part; but also to contemplate its present flourishing situation in commerce, arts, literature, &c. and the causes that have led to it.' He informs us that the first part has been favourably received. If so, the admirers of the former undertaking will not disapprove the present. It is executed nearly in the same manner, but has little connection with the title, and, according to the plan proposed above, the third part will have none at all.

* In Fielding's *Pasquin* (a different sort of *Pasquin* from the present), *conscience* and *interest* are said to imply the same thing, but that the former is the genteeler word—*verbum sat sapienti*!

Ode to his Majesty on his Happy Recovery. 4to. 1s. Wikie.

‘What pealing shouts, rending the vaulted skies,
Come rushing on my ear, loud as the sound
Of torrent waves! Augusta’s towers rebound
The joy tumultuous, and prolong the noise.
Loud and more loud the vocal thunders rise.
He lives! our Sovereign lives! is all the cry;
He lives! our Sovereign lives! the distant shores reply.’

Huzza! Heaven grant he may long continue to enjoy it. We have been most thoroughly sickened with the verses our situation has obliged us to peruse on his recovery, and sincerely hope they are now brought to a conclusion, and his health fully re-established. The present performance, though like Blackmore’s ever-memorable strains, it appears sometimes to be ‘written to the rumbling of a chariot’s wheels,’ contains many lines that breathe the genuine spirit of poetry: spirit indeed it never wants, but it is too often ‘extravagant and erring.’ We cannot resist the temptation of transcribing one curious instance. ‘Liberty’s silver streamers,’ are mentioned as ‘flowing on the wind.’

‘On whose asbestine texture Brunswick’s name
Shines, broad-embraz’d in characters of flame.’

This couplet would have made no contemptible appearance among the happy and apposite quotations of Martinus Scriblerus, in his elaborate treatise on the bathos.

An Epistle in Verse. Written from Somersetshire. 4to. 1s. 6d. Murray.

The periods in this poem are generally too long; we sometimes meet with no stop, a comma excepted, for ten or a dozen successive lines. A familiar epistle, like the present, does not certainly require a terse or an elevated style, but it should be polished and perspicuous. That cannot be said of the following passage, addressed to Scotland on her union with England:

‘Yet arduous tasks and toils severe,
If she, advanc’d in higher sphere
To move would keep her fame entire,
Her earnest care and zeal require.
And oft in words persuasive, sound,
She warns her sons, more worthy found,
Whom better thoughts and views engage,
That conscious of the former age
When she maintained her Scottish crown,
And jealous of her just renown,
They ought, in times illustrious born,
When brighter wreaths her brow adorn,
And she a higher part sustains,
Pious to strive with generous pains

To lift on high her honour'd name
With fair encrease of shining fame.'

Exclusive of the author's careless mode in arranging his sentences, which too often occurs, there is little that can be pointed out as exceptionable in this poem. It possesses indeed no superior degree of merit, but may be read with pleasure.

Leith Hill. A Poem. 4to. 2s. 6d. Hookham.

' Let others bend their steps to foreign climes,
From Alpine hill, or lofty Apennine,
Feast on the grandeur of the Latian plains;
While I, perhaps, surpassing grandeur court;
Scenes, which my native life profusely yields,
At once the theme and glory of my song.

' Ye, whom the beauteous and sublime delight,
The expansive prospect, leading forth the view
Till all the distant landscape fades away,
And form, and shade, are lost in fleeting air;
Ascend the brow of solitary Leith,
Whose ample summit *stretching many a rood*,
Pillows the lowering clouds. There gaze your fill.

' From the smooth platform of a mould'ring tower,
The tomb of worth, and mark of taste refin'd,
Which stands a faithful and conspicuous guide
To that judicious, central point of sight,
Where best encircling prospects meet the eye;
Contemplate first the mighty view beneath.'

The expressions marked in Italics are from Milton, but, as here applied, we do not much admire them. The reason of our quoting these introductory lines was chiefly on account of giving the reader a just idea of the manner in which the poem is generally written. An even flow, with scarcely any break or variation of cadence, a few passages excepted, continues from line to line, sometimes through an entire page, from the beginning to the end of the poem. This, however agreeable in, or essential to, rhyme, has an exceeding bad effect in blank verse. Had the author attended to the structure of Milton's lines, as well as the expressions contained in them, he would have easily learned to have varied his pauses, and not have disgusted the reader by a monotonous uniformity. We have allowed there are some few passages to which our censure does not extend: such lines as the following are not included in it:

' And with magnificence unthought of, fill the scene.'
' Ennobled by the first of virtues, public zeal.'
' Next Architecture boasts his varied excellence,
Points to the obelisk, the pyramid, the bridge.'

We could quote some others of the same kind, but they have not merit sufficient to make an atonement for the faults of others,

Tetrachymagogen Hypercriticum: a Piece of Poetry merry and sedate. With all proper Distance inscribed to Abraham Quarterman, Ale and Iron Draper. By Tom Plumb. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearfley.

After reading this curious poem at the full, the new moon, and in the interval between each, for we would 'spare no labour for our country's good:' after addressing the splendid satellite from whom all lunatics derive their name and inspiration, we could find no solution of the inexplicable problem, viz, the author's end, object, and design. The last lines, entitled the Epilogue, are more intelligible than any others, and we have consequently copied them:

'Tom bids me say, most reverend overseers
Of Phoebus' poor, that work the critic pen,
He beats not all your wigs about your ears,
But decimates, and pulls one wig in ten.

'Tis by majority men win the day.
If ev'ry fool will then give Tom a plumper,
The odds o' th' poll's his own, and who shall say
Most welcome down to H— each witty mumper.'

This peroration is a little in the style of Pindar, but we hope a dark room with some clean straw will soon effect the cure.

A Poem, in Hudibrastic Verse: with an explanatory Preface. Addressed to the Nobility, Gentry, and others, curious in their Carriages. 8vo. 1s. Dickie.

Mr. Hackwood, a coach-maker in the Acre, (surely our author cannot mean Mr. Hatchett in Long-Acre) on some dispute with his workmen, employed only common carpenters, finereed the pannels, and reduced the price of carriages twenty per cent. On this account the present

'Sharp grinding satire gibbets up his name.'

The lines, as Hudibrastic ones, are not bad; and, considering the provocation, for the author is undoubtedly some journeyman coach-maker out of work, his materials are put together decently and firmly: the buggy is, in truth, a little polished, and, except in some rough road, seems a comfortable easy carriage.

The Recovery; or, the Tears of Fashion: a Poem, occasioned by the late Occurrences. By an Oxonian. 4to. 2s. No Publisher's Name.

If this illiberal attack on many eminent characters in opposition was really written by an Oxonian, it would be sufficient to cause 'the tears of Isis' to flow in unison with those of *Fashion*, through shame and pity for her degenerate son.

The Expoftulation, an Epistle, to the right hon. William Pitt, &c. 4to. 2s. Bew.

A chip of the same block: less exceptionable than the former, by being less intelligible.

A Con-

A Congratulatory Epistle to his Grace the Duke of Portland, on his Majesty's Recovery. 4to. 1s. Scatcherd and Whitaker.

However different this title may appear from those preceding, and they indeed from each other, the subject is nearly the same. It must be confessed that it is treated in a different, though sometimes not less justifiable manner. The duke is thus admonished of the poverty and greediness of his adherents, and the idea is not without humour. The last line, being a parody, should have been in Italics, or marked with inverted commas:

'Know! should for ev'ry hair profusely spread
In copious curls round lord John Russell's head;
Yes—if for ev'ry hair a place should fall,
Their great distress has stomach for them all.'

New Description of Blenheim, the Seat of his Grace the Duke of Marlborough. To which is prefixed, Blenheim, a Poem. A new, and much improved Edition. 8vo. 3s. 6d. in Boards. Cadell.

We gave a favourable account of this poem in vol. LXIII. p. 218. It is now revised and enlarged, as is the description of Blenheim and its environs. The latter is too much in 'the high flown panegyric style:' but will afford entertainment, and prove of service to those who choose to visit that noble monument, notwithstanding all its defects, of national gratitude.

The Guinea Voyage. A Poem, in three Books. By James Field Stanfield. 4to. 2s. Phillips.

More feeling than genius or judgment is discoverable in this poem. Some passages are not devoid of poetic fire, but it in general either emits a dim uncertain light, or flashes at intervals through surrounding clouds of fussian and bombast. The following lines, in which these marks are extremely discernible, are characteristic of the whole performance:

'O could the verse but to my wishes move,
No spicy zephyrs borne on wings of love,
No gentle pinions, fanning spring-tide air,
Should give one image, or be mentioned here.
Thy black Tornado, ill-mar'd Afric—thine—
Should be the model of my varied line!
On the still diction of the mournful strain,
The rising darknets should profusely reign:
The sable cloud should wrap the sullen song,
And in grand melancholy sweep along:
Then, by degrees, with gath'ring horror fraught,
Tempestuous numbers, and the electric thought,
Shake the big thunder—dart th' indignant beam—
Till the full torrent pour'd the headlong stream,
Whelm'd ev'ry hursting breast in twofold ire,
Grief's melting show'r—and indignation's fire.'

The first book considers the voyage to Africa: the second the transactions

transactions there, and the third the return of the vessel to the British colonies. The plan is somewhat similar to that of Mr. Jamieson's, mentioned in our Review for last June, p. 468, but the incidents are different: we have, however, in general, had the principal part of the subject and most interesting circumstances over and over again, both in prose and poetry.

Expostulatory Odes to a great Duke, and a little Lord. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to, 2s. 6d. Kearsley.

We fear that Peter's genius is repressed by the terrors of the law, and he sings with Hob,

'The terrible law, when it fastens its paw,' &c.

for the *Expostulatory Odes to a little Lord and a great Duke*, who are said to have examined his poems, with a design of proving some parts of them a libel, are evidently written with unusual constraint. The greater number are trifling and insipid, though Peter's spirit occasionally emerges with some lustre. We are sorry to observe, that we do not find it so difficult as usual to select a specimen; there are but three passages adapted for our purpose; we shall prefer what appears to us the best. It is part of his *Apology*;

'To mine, Charles Churchill's rage was downright rancour,

He was a first-rate man of war to me,

Thund'ring amidst a high tempestuous sea;

I'm a small cockboat bobbing at an anchor;

Playing with patereroes that alarm,

Yet scorn to do a bit of harm.

My satire's blunt—his boasted a keen edge—

A sugar hammer mine—but his a blacksmith's sledge!

And then *that* Junius!—what a scalping fellow;

Who dar'd such treason and sedition bellow!

Compar'd to them, whose pleasure 'twas to stab,

Lord! I'm a melting medlar to a crab!

My humour of a very diff'rent sort is—

Their satire's horrid hair-cloth, mine is silk—

I am a pretty nipperkin of milk;

They two enormous jugs of *agua fortis*.

Compar'd to their high floods of foaming satire,

My rhyme's a rill—a thread of murmuring water;

A whirlwind they, that oaks like stubble heaves—

I, zephyr whisp'ring, sporting thro' the leaves.'—

— 'He tickles only—how can he do more,
Whose only instrument's a feather?'

We hope he will soon recover from this panic; for genius like his should not be kept in fetters.

P R A.

D R A M A T I C.

False Appearances, a Comedy, altered from the French; and performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury-lane. By the Right Hon. General Conway. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

This comedy is a translation of the 'Dehors Trompeurs' of M. Boissy, with the addition of an under-plot. It was originally acted at Richmond-house; and afterwards, with the scenes which relate to the abbé, at Drury-lane. The play, like other very genteel comedies, is insipid; and, even the new scenes, from the character of an abbé being so little understood, lose much of their poignancy. It is an exotic which bears not our climate, and will scarcely flourish in our short northern summers.

The Farm House, a Comedy, in Three Acts, as altered by J. P. Kemble, and first acted at the Theatre Royal, Drury-lane, Mby 1, 1789. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

Mr. Kemble should have told us that this pleasing little after-piece consisted of the rural scenes of that excellent comedy, the Country Lassie, or the Custom of the Manor; but there is so much comic humour in the other parts, so little (a few indecorums excepted) we could wish to blot; that we cannot easily reconcile ourselves to this mutilation. As three farces are now often in the evening's bill of fare, perhaps Mr. Kemble found the stock-list insufficient, and as he is now engaged in the employment of his scissars, it may be of use to observe, that King Lear and Hamlet, by only omitting the tragic parts, might furnish, 'The Cavern, or the Humours of Mad Tom,' and a pleasant entertainment of 'The Grave Diggers.'

The Married Man. A Comedy, in Three Acts. From Le Philosophe Marié of M. Nericault Desfouchés. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Hay-Market, By Mrs. Inchbald. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinson.

This play is said to be taken from the Philosophe Marié of M. Desfouchés; but, in its plot and many of its minuter incidents, it greatly resembles The Married Philosopher, a comedy by a gentleman of the Temple (perhaps Henry Fielding), of which the second edition, that now lies before us, was printed in 1732. The Married Philosopher was taken, it is remarked, from the 'Gallic stage,' where, as we suspect from the prologue, it had the additional ornaments of music and songs; to fill up the space, the gentleman of the Temple seems to have added the characters of Pinwell and Brush, meagre copies of Tom and Phillis. If M. Desfouchés' play is modern, as we suspect, Mrs. Inchbald has become, though innocently, the receiver of stolen goods. It is enough, however, for us to observe, that the 'Married Man' is pleasing and interesting in its conduct, while, from its length and uniform tenor, it is well suited to the short evenings and the warm weather of the Hay-market season.

The

The Sentimental Mother, a Comedy, in Five Acts: the Legacy of an Old Friend, and his last Moral Lesson to Mrs. Hester Lynch Fbrale, now Mrs. Piozzi. 8vo. 3s. Ridgway.

It is not difficult to divine, even from the title, who the 'Sentimental Mother' is; but, if the insinuations are true, we pity the lady; if false, we detest the calumniator. At any rate, the public is an improper tribunal to be appealed to in this form, and we are always more ready to suppose that private malice dictates the scandal, than that it flows from a genuine love of virtue.

Don Juan; or, The Libertine Destroyed: a Tragic Pantomimical Entertainment, in two Acts, as performed at the Royal Theatre. 8vo. 6d. Stalker.

'A tale which, whether true or false, fact or fable, has furnished every Christian country in the world, I believe, with some subject of representation.'

This is Mrs. Piozzi's account of Don Juan in Italy, and we shall insist the lady into our corps, by not adding a word to what she has advanced in the ensuing paragraph.

'It makes me no sport, however; the idea of an impertinent finger going to hell is too seriously terrifying to make amusement out of it. Let mythology, which is now grown good for little else, be danced upon the stage; where Mr. Vestris may bounce and struggle in the character of Alcides on his funeral pile, with no very glaring impropriety; and such baubles serve beside to keep old classical stories in the heads of our young people; who, if they *must* have torches to blaze in their eyes, may divert themselves with Pluto catching up Ceres's daughter, and driving her away to Tartarus; but let Don Juan alone. I have at least *half a notion* that the horrible history is *half true*; if so, it is surely very gross to represent it by dancing. Should such false foddish taste prevail in England (but I hope it will not), we might perhaps go happily through the whole book of God's Revenge against Murder, or the Annals of Newgate, on the stage, as a variety of pretty stories may be found there of the same cast; while statues of Hercules and Minerva, with their insignia as heathen deities, might be placed, with equal attention to religion, costume, and general fitness, as decorations for the monuments of Westminster Abby.'

Remarks on the Nature of Pantomime, or imitative Dance, ancient and modern; with a particular Account of a favourite Ballet, and of a very curious Allegory. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

The serious pantomime was not uncommon on the Roman stage, where the reciter and the actor were often two distinct persons. Even Æsopus and Roscius, the tragic and comic heroes of antiquity, were supposed chiefly to excel in gesticulation.

'Quæ

‘*Quæ gravis Æsopus, quæ doctus Roscius egit.*’

Perhaps Pope, in his dry encomium on Betterton, had a similar qualification in view :

‘Which Betterton’s *grave action* dignified.’

Our own Garrick, when he described the sudden grief and terror of the father (whose child had sprung from his arms and was immediately drowned), by action, to those who did not understand his language, appeared to be a master in that art. We have been also informed, that he sometimes sent away disagreeable petitioners, by assuming the terrific in its most violent degree.

But we are wandering from the subject, viz. the Ballet of Cupid and Psyche, which, with a little ingenuity, might be turned into the fall of Adam ; while a spiritual allegoriser must in the conclusion see the restoration of mankind. For our own parts, we perceive an elegant fable, whose outline is obvious, but whose particular and isoteric meaning we shall perhaps never understand. The work seems to have been written to recommend this dance, which has now yielded to other novelties. The introductory observations, which show learning and taste, are connected a little unaccountably with the recommendation of a stage-dance. The author of the first would, we should have thought, scarcely have condescended to become the puffier of M. Noverre.

Alfred, an Historical Tragedy. To which is added, a Collection of Miscellaneous Poems. By the same Author. 8vo. 4s. Robinsons.

The tragedy of Alfred abounds with absurdities; at which, as we have been led to suppose that it is the performance of an ‘untaught muse,’ we were not much surpris’d. We confess, however, that we were greatly so at perceiving an elegance and neatness in some of the lesser poems, which would have done no discredit to a writer of the greatest eminence. They are not indeed strictly correct. ‘Rudely’ and ‘unhid’d’ in the following little *jeu d’esprit* may be objected to : the first rather conveys a wrong idea, the second is an awkward word ; yet the thought and expression in most other respects strike us as equally happy. The lines are addressed to a lady called Maria, on reading to her Sterne’s beautiful story of that name.

‘As Sterne’s pathetic tale you hear,
Why rudely check the rising sigh?
Why seek to hide the pitying tear,
Whose lustre aids the brilliant eye?

Tears which lament another’s woe,
Unveil the goodness of the heart:
Uncheck’d, unhid’d, these should flow—
They please beyond the pow’r of art.

Does

Does not yon crimson-tinted rose,
 Whose opening blush delights the view,
 More splendid colouring disclose,
 When brightly gem'd with morning dew ?
 So shall Maria's beauteous face,
 Drest in more pleasing charms appear,
 When aided by the matchless grace
 Of Pity's sympathizing tear.

DIVINITY AND RELIGIOUS.

The Revolution the Work of God, and a Cause of Joy. Two Sermons delivered in Bristol-Street Meeting-House, Nov. 5th. 1788. By James Peddie. 8vo. 1s. Duncan, Glasgow.

Our author seems to be a minister of the Seceders, a sect of Dissenters from the church of Scotland, who are generally of the Calvinistic persuasion. His sermons are rather loyal than elegant; rather political and religious than correct or very pleasing performances.

The Rise, Progress, and Effects of Sunday Schools considered in a Sermon, preached at Taunton, March 28, 1789. By Joshua Toulmin. M. A. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

Mr. Toulmin considers this improvement, which arose from small beginnings, as likely to produce the most important consequences, and his text is taken from the xviiith chapter of the first book of Kings, where the rain, after the great drought, in the time of Ahab, was brought on by a cloud, at first no larger than a man's hand. He introduces the subject by a view of some great events, from an origin almost equally in appearance unimportant; and of the concurrence of all ranks and all parties in an institution, where no particular tenet of religion is inculcated; he hopes that a more perfect union of sentiment, or at least of the most extensive liberality and charity, may be the consequence.

A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of Madron, in the County of Cornwall, on the 23d of April, 1789; being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving for the Recovery of the King from Illness. By W. Tremembeere, A. B. 4to. 1s. Wilkie.

This Sermon is very short and very loyal: it is written in easy flowing language, though often a little too flowery and poetical.

Sermons for Children; being a Course of fifty-two, on Subjects suited to their tender Age, and in a Style adapted to the Understanding of the rising Generation. By the Rev. Mark Anthony Meilan, In three Volumes. 12mo. 9s. Printed for the Author.

The language of these discourses designed for children is inelegant, intricate, and embarrassed. The sentiments are very seldom beautiful or striking. The author, in one of his sermons, 'avows himself indebted to God's providence for gifts

ROX.

not lavished upon every one, for strength of understanding, and a disposition suited to employ it.' It is kind to inform us of this, as we certainly should not otherwise have been able to make the discovery.

Jure Divino; or, the True Grounds and Reasons for the support of the Christian Ministry. Occasioned by the present contested Election at the Asylum. 4to. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

Our author states with great propriety what it is to preach the Gospel, by showing what the gospel of Christ is, and the necessity of understanding its nature, design, and tendency, to carry that conviction to the mind of the hearer which the importance of the subject demands: his conclusion is, that those who 'preach the gospel should live by the gospel.' This pamphlet is said to have been occasioned by the present contested election at the Asylum; but we find nothing of this subject, and what relates to the conclusion consists only of some few vague and indecisive hints on the Utopian scheme of equalising livings, a measure devoutly to be wished for, but as imaginary as a millennium, or one vast republic.

A Letter on the Sonship of Christ, originally addressed to some of the Members of the Baptist Church at Edinburgh. By A. McLean. 12mo. 1s. Buckland.

This letter was originally addressed by the author to some of the members of the Baptist Church at Edinburgh, among whom it seems the subject had created a little confusion. Mr. McLean professes himself a firm Trinitarian, and urges that the relations expressed by the names of Father and Son in scripture, are not intended to teach the manner and order of their eternal subsistence in the Godhead. He produces many arguments to prove, that the title of *Son of God* applied to Christ merely as relative to his appearance in human nature. The greater part of the pamphlet, however, is allotted to an examination of the defence of the contrary opinion, by Dr. Robert Walker. Mr. McLean writes like a man of discernment, and seems to have greatly the advantage in the controversy.

An Epistolary Address to the rev. Dr. Priestley; containing an Apology for those who conscientiously subscribe to the Articles of the Church of England. By the rev. J. Hawkins. 8vo. 1s. 6d. White and Son.

This Address contains an apology for those who conscientiously subscribe to the articles of the church of England, and in particular to the doctrines of the Trinity, &c. The author, who is the rev. Mr. John Hawkins, remonstrates with Dr. Priestley on the censures which the latter has cast on the clergy and the doctrines of the church of England, and undertakes to prove, that the doctrines of the Trinity and the divinity of Jesus Christ involve no contradiction or absurdity. We have only to add, that

that he writes with much good sense, and discovers great moderation of candour.

Effusions of the Heart: or, Heavenly Meditations and Devotional Exercises. By Sophronia. 8vo. 1s. sewed. Dilly.

In pain, anxiety, and affliction, the reflecting mind can only find consolation in religion, in looking to that higher sphere, where the wicked cease from troubling, and sorrow is heard no more. In these moments, when the heart is softened, and the mind debilitated, religion will often rise to enthusiasm, and the language swell into bombast. Our afflicted author is more rational than many of those whose meditations have been published: she displays true piety, acute sensibility, and a rational resignation. A few words only, and one or two images occasionally, debase the subject; but, on the whole, she deserves no little commendation.

An Exhortation to all Christian People, to refrain from Trinitarian Worship. 8vo. 4d. Johnson.

Our author contrasts the different doxologies and prayers of the church of England, and other Trinitarians, with the language of the holy scriptures, and points out what appears to him a singular and striking opposition. He then exhorts his readers to avoid the Trinitarian worship from various considerations, and answers the objections which may be made against their secession. The Exhortation is plain and animated; but the representations are not always fair, or the conclusions just.

A Vindication of the Doctrine of the Pre-existence of Christ, considered in a practical View: humbly recommended to the Attention of the Serious. By Joseph Cornish. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

While Dissenters of every denomination are said to be migrating to the pale of Socinianism, said very aptly by our author's friend, to be 'the frigid zone of religion,' yet Mr. Cornish stands firm and unmoved. His Vindication is a plain, judicious, and generally accurate view of the best arguments which have been adduced to prove the pre-existence of Christ; among these we perceive some which appear to us to be new, or at least enforced in an unusually persuasive style.

M E D I C A L.

A Tale of Truth. Addressed to Arthritics: containing a secure, cheap, and certain Remedy for the Gout. 8vo. 6d. Kearsley.

The remedy is opium, given after the first violence of the pain, and its astringent effects are prevented by tincture of rhubarb. But really, has not the author read Dr. Warner's work, or any medical treatise on the subject of gout? Opium is frequently recommended. Though we live by the practice of physic, and do not greatly love empiricism, we have such a regard for the author, for his truly benevolent and disinterested attempt,

attempt, that we will tell him, his case is not a fair one: his gout is complicated with rheumatism; and if he takes Novar's powder (the pulv. ipecacuanhæ compositus of the last Dispensatory) it will succeed better.

The History and Chemical Analysis of the Mineral Water lately discovered in the City of Gloucester; the various Diseases to which it is applicable considered; and the necessary Regulations for drinking it with Success ascertained and prescribed. By John Hemmings, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Hookham.

Our author gives a very laboured account of this mineral water, which contains in each gallon of fixed air seventy-two ounce measures; calcareous earth, combined with the same acid, thirty grains; aerated magnesia twenty-four grains; aerated iron, eight grains; and Epsom salt, thirty grains. It appears to be unequal in its strength at different times; and, at best, its impregnations are so slight that no material advantage can be derived from them, except perhaps from the iron. There are probably ten thousand similar springs in England of at least equal strength, and many of superior powers.

N O V E L S.

The Hermit of Snowden; or, Memoirs of Albert and Lavinia, taken from a faithful Copy of the original Manuscript, which was found in the Hermitage, by the late Rev. Dr. L. and Mr. —, in the Year 17th. 8vo. 3s. Walter.

Without pretending to examine the authenticity of the manuscript, or to develop the inconsistencies of a tale so trite as the discovery of a hermitage and the papers containing the story, we can safely say that the tale is written by no common author; is pleasing, and may be useful. It teaches the salutary lesson of guarding against mean suspicion and unreasonable jealousy; the danger of protracting the happiness within reach, lest the unaffected love of a delicate female should be the ill-disguised dictates of interest or ambition. Read it, ye sons of fashion or of fortune, and change your conduct: be happy, if your hearts, depraved by vanity and dissipation, will permit!

Elenora, a Novel, in a Series of Letters, written by a Female Inhabitant of Leeds in Yorkshire. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Walter.

An accident prevented Eleonora from reaching us so soon as we expected, and to that circumstance alone must be attributed our delay. It is, on the whole, a work highly creditable, to the good sense and the benevolence of the author. The story is not perplexed by an artificial plot unravelled with skill; but an artless tale, told in an easy pleasing style, enlivened by the occasional introduction of humorous personages and laughable events, and rendered instructive by the excellent morality which pervades every page of these volumes. We heartily wish the author, in her future attempts, the success which she so well deserves.

The

The Innocent Fugitive; or, Memoirs of a Lady of Quality. By the Author of the Platonic Guardian. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Hookham.

We reviewed *The Platonic Guardian* in our LXIVth volume, p. 392. and we there traced the fair author in the footsteps of Miss Burney. The character of Bennet is drawn and coloured from the same original, and some less important and striking imitations of that celebrated novellist may be discerned. The present story, and particularly the hinge on which it turns, is in some degree improbable; but it is pleasing, and often interesting. The characters are neither pointed, nor discriminated with much address.

Hartley House, Calcutta. 3 Volumes. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Doddsley.

We have been much pleased with these volumes; for, in the guise of a novel, they will convey much information. They contain a pleasing, and, we think, an accurate description of Bengal and its capital, Calcutta.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Observations on the Herring Fisheries upon the North and East Coasts of Scotland, &c. By Lewis McCulloch. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardson.

These Observations are clear, plain, and apparently honest. They are highly creditable to the author's good sense and practical knowledge of his business, and deserve the attention of those who are engaged in the fisheries.

A Letter to the Author of a Letter to the Bishops, on the Application of the Dissenters for a Repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts. By W. A. 8vo. 6d. Printed for the Author.

The manly language of the author of a Letter to the Bishops respecting the Repeal of the Test Act, is parodied in this little pamphlet, and applied to the opponents of baptism by immersion.

Exercises in Latin Composition. By the rev. J. Adams. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Law.

This school-book is intended as a sequel to *Exempla Minora*, Bailey's Exercises, &c. or to be used alternately with them. The first part contains easy English lessons, with the Latin words to be rendered by the scholar into their proper cases, moods, genders, &c. The second, English lessons without the Latin words, that the learner may, by consulting his dictionary, choose for himself. The author entertains a high opinion of the utility of his manual, and we agree with him that under proper direction it may prove serviceable.

THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For SEPTEMBER, 1789.

The History and Antiquities of the Town and County of the Town of Newcastle upon Tyne, including an Account of the Coal-Trade of that Place, and embellished with engraved Views of the Public Buildings, &c. By John Brand, M. A. Two Vols. 4to. 3l. 3s. in Boards. White and Son.

TOPOGRAPHY may be styled more minute and limited history. We look at one spot and its events through a literary microscope, where every object is magnified, and examined in detail; an operation at first pleasing, but when pursued too closely, unimportant, tedious, and disgusting. We see the most inconsiderable parts which connect the whole, but we see them with all their rugged harshness, for which the idea of their utility will hardly compensate, and we look over ruins which ages have crumbled away till scarcely a vestige is left, because it is a part of that object which our duty has engaged us to examine. We mean not to say that labour of this kind is always unpleasing, and that in our survey we meet with no objects that are interesting; but the pleasure and the interest are often local; the advantages are scarcely felt beyond the boundaries which are described, and diminish almost in proportion to their distance. Newcastle may probably be excepted from this general character. It was for a long time near the scene of obdurate contentions; and shared the fortunes of its party: bounteous nature has also bestowed on it natural riches in an excellent harbour, and a valuable salmon fishery; above all, inexhaustible possessions in its coal mines. Our author, so far as we can judge at a distance, has not spared the labour of examining its recondite stores of antiquity, or the drudgery of arranging these rude materials; but he must excuse us, if in a work not generally interesting, we do not follow him so minutely as perhaps the natural partiality of an author to his own productions might lead him to think requisite.

Mr. Brand, in his preface, gives a very particular and satisfactory account of the sources from whence his history is drawn, which we cannot follow with any advantage. The first part is on the ancient fortifications, streets, churches, monasteries,
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bridges, and other public edifices. Newcastle was certainly a walled town in 1216, and the walls are said to have been built, or at least begun, in the time of Edward I. though they were not finished till that of Edward III. The walls are now generally taken down, and the ditch is filled up; but our author traces their history and their various fortunes. The different gates are next described, and they are usually illustrated by plates: indeed these volumes are rich in ornaments of this kind, often well executed; but the engraver has succeeded better in views of antiquity, than in representing distant prospects. He has not, so far as we can perceive, been guilty of any very considerable errors, though he has seldom risen to very great excellence. The view of Newcastle, taken from Shieldfield, is in many respects very good.

The number of houses rated to the window-tax was, in 1781, 2389; but several were returned 'poor.' Hutton supposes them 2450; and the inhabitants not less than 30,000. They are supplied, he says, 'annually, with 5000 oxen; 10,000 calves; 143,000 sheep and lambs.' We suspect that the number of inhabitants must be greater, or the supply less. Perhaps the proportion of lambs may be considerable.

The Tyne bridge has been supposed to be in the situation of the old Roman bridge. There probably was a Roman way from London to Chester-le-street; and from thence to Newcastle. The opinion is greatly confirmed by the Itinerary of Richard of Cirencester, first printed by Mr. Bertram, in Sweden. Some Roman masonry was also conspicuous near it; but our author does not seem to be accurate or well founded in supposing this to be the work of Hadrian, '*Pons Ælii cum septem fornicibus.*' It was destroyed by a great flood in 1771, and the last arch of the new bridge was only closed in 1779. The grammar-school of Newcastle was endowed about the middle of the sixteenth century: an account of the masters and ushers, with some biographical remarks and additions concerning 'scholarships, fellowships, and exhibitions, that may be enjoyed by the scholars of Newcastle school' is subjoined. The monastery of Black Friars, where Edward Baliol, king of Scotland, did homage to Edward III. is very particularly described. Hadrian's vallum, so far as its situation and direction can be ascertained, is also described at some length.

The castle, from which the town had its name, is undoubtedly the work of the son of William the Conqueror; but the name seems to show that some ancient castle existed before that period on the spot. The new castle, we have been told, may be easily distinguished from the old one, which was round, and has been since called the Half Moon Battery, supposed to have been a Roman

Roman fortress, to command the pass of the bridge. The eventful history of this castle to the sale of the Castle-Garth, 1779, when it was sold to Mr. Turner, one of the agents to Greenwich Hospital, is detailed at length, and furnishes some interesting and some entertaining occurrences. The present remains of the castle seem also to have been examined by our author with great attention.

The monasteries, nunneries, and other religious establishments of Newcastle were very numerous; and indeed, from this circumstance, Monk Chester was the name by which it was distinguished after its old appellation, 'Ad Murum,' was disused. St. Nicholas, its earliest church, is still conspicuous for its very singular spire, its extent, and antiquity. It was founded in 1091, the fourth year of William Rufus; and modernised in 1783, when, it is said, almost all the funereal monuments were sacrificed to the new embellishments and alterations. The history of the church, its different monuments, particularly that of the late Matthew Ridley, esq. who died in 1778, executed by Mr. Bacon, with a short account of its different vicars, lecturers, the chapels of ease depending on it, form a considerable part of the first volume; but these are chiefly local details, to which vicinity alone gives importance. The church of All Saints, with its chantries, chapels, &c. is also described at some length; as well as the meeting-houses, and sects of different denominations, according to their situation, for Mr. Brand examines different districts in the proper order.

In the suburbs, the Infirmary, first opened in October 1752, is a striking object; and a very good view of it is subjoined, from which it appears that its situation is airy, though its form is not the most commodious, for a square is not compatible with a very free ventilation. The Firth, formerly the site of a fort belonging to the castle, is a public walk, or place of recreation in the suburbs. In the suburbs of Pilgrim-streets, among the charitable institutions, is one for the lepers, styled the Hospital of St. Mary Magdalen, the patron saint, in almost every city in England where such institutions exist, of these unhappy objects. The suburbs of Pandon, perhaps the pant (pond or fountain) hill afford the town its supply of water; but the high hills in the neighbourhood of Newcastle are more probably its real source; and in this spot the old capacious reservoir seems to have been placed. Plenty of water was undoubtedly always an object of great importance; but those who are acquainted with the works of our ancestors for this purpose, know that they were usually executed, not only with an anxiety which the object would require, but with a skill which the most enlightened modern surveyors can rarely excel, and sometimes not equal

The keelmen, at present an important body, who work at the keels (boats), or lighters, occur first as a fraternity in 1539. but they appear to be dependants on the hostmen, a fraternity whose origin and whose employments we cannot ascertain. If, with our author, we explain the term to mean Eastmen, formerly styled Esserlings, we must suppose that the collieries and the barges were once in the hands of this enterprising and forward race. But his explanation, though in part supported by Camden, is not, we think, well founded: it is at least inconsistent with the following clause of an act, 43 of queen Elizabeth, by which the hoastemen, for this is the proper spelling, were incorporated.

‘ 11th A^{de} — Yt is further ordered by th^e aucthoryte aforesaide the saide daye and yere that no free brother of this fellowship of hostmen shall henceforth either himself or his servants or any other for him goe or send to the sheeles or the ballist-shores or within any parte of the ryver of Tyne or any place without the walles of the saide towne to talke or speake with the owner, mr. or purser of any shipp, hoie, or other vessell whatsoever upon the water to learne whose *oasse* he is, therby to procure him to be his *oasse* or to withdrawe him from his *old oasse* by any kind of meanes, &c.’

It is perhaps more probable that the term was the common one of host*, from the French *hoste*, altered a little by a broad Northumbrian pronunciation. The existence of a body, however, with this title is sufficiently ascertained, long before its incorporation, by the act just referred to in 1600; and they were the patrons or masters of the keelmen. The keelmen occur in 1490, petitioning the hostmen to provide them with a chapel and a minister; and, in 1700, they petitioned the common council of Newcastle for a piece of ground on which they might build an hospital: even in this instance, the hostmen were their trustees and guardians. The hospital was built in 1701, at the expence of above 2000 pounds, which was defrayed by the keelmen; but we are sorry to add that various disputes have been the consequence, and nothing has been done to re-establish the hospital effectually.

Gatehead, in the county of Dusham, either Goat's head, or from *gote*, the old word for way, and head (*viz caput*; the end of the Roman road), next occupies Mr. Brand's attention. St. Edmund's Hospital is its principal institution. Some account of the town of Gatehead, which was formerly a dis-

* Why may not the term ship's-host, or the person who transacts the business for the captain while it is in a foreign port, be as natural and proper as ship's-husband? The employment of the hoastmen, is said in the act to be the loading and better disposing the different parts of the cargo.

time one, and seems to have had its separate jurisdiction, with its church, the different chantries, &c. is subjoined; and with this description the volume is concluded. The appendix to this volume consists of original documents, acts of parliament, antiquarian researches, and descriptions of different remains of antiquity.

The second volume commences with a description of the Tyne, which is variously derived. Mr. Whitaker contends that it is an abbreviation of Avon, T'Avon, T'Aun, Tyne; but this author's acquaintance with the ancient British is not very accurate. Avon may, however, be traced in many different appellations of rivers, and it was pretty certainly the Celtic term for water. Ock is another Celtic word of a similar signification, and may be found wherever any traces of the Celtic remain; but Tyne is scarcely farther removed from the one than from the other. Bullet's Celtic etymology from *tyn*, *double*, is at once obvious and appropriated, since there are two rivers of almost equal size, the one from the high ground near the Scottish borders, and the other from near the confines of Cumberland, which unite a little to the north of Hexham. If the river had the name of the 'Double' River from this union, the two parts would be naturally styled North and South Tyne. The history of this river, and the various disputes which so valuable a property as its navigation has occasioned, fill many pages. We are sorry that our author has done so little more, in his accounts of the imports and exports to and from the Tyne, than copy Hutton. We shall select, as well as we can, the scattered limbs.

* In Hutton's Plan of Newcastle, dated January 10th, 1772, it is related, that the number of ships entered inwards every year in the port of Tyne is nearly as follows:

Ships

810	77,880 tons, from the coast with goods.
240	18,650 tons, from foreign parts.

950 96,530 in all.

“The trade and shipping of this place,” continues that authority, “are very considerable, and have always made it of the utmost consequence. Besides its necessary services in supplying a great part of the nation with coals, &c. and the very great revenues arising from thence, it is of the greatest consequence as a nursery for brave and hardy seamen, who have always struck such a terror into the hearts of all the enemies of Great-Britain, that, whenever a rupture happened with any foreign power, attacks upon this branch of commerce, and body of

men, were always studiously avoided *. In the month of June 1775, no less than 265 salmon were caught at one draught, at the Low Lights in the river Tyne. There had been great commotions among the sailors of Shields and Sunderland in the month of March preceding.

* The subsequent account of the lead exported from the port of Tyne, on an average of six years to Christmas, 1776, was communicated by Mr. Page, deputy comptroller of the port of Newcastle.

“ To London and other ports of Great

Britain,	—	—	—	76,800 pieces.
To foreign parts,	—	—	—	17,500 pieces.

94,300

Weight, at 1 cwt. 2 qrs. per piece, 7072 tons and a half.”

“ In 1782 the exports were † coals, lead, glass, salt, though this trade is now almost lost, grind-stones, cinders, coalfways.

The imports are :

Wine—Portugal.

Port—Lisbon.

Wine, mountain—Malaga.

Raisins, almonds—Malaga.

Timber, raft—Norway, Wyburgh.

Iron—Sweden, Russia.

Corn—Dantzic, Koningsburgh.

Hemp, flax—Russia, Revel, Riga.

Brandy, from France.

Smalts—Hamburgh.

“ * Beside the home and coast trade, adds this account, the foreign trade of Newcastle, in general, is with Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, Germany, Russia, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Poland; beside occasional ships to and from America, the West Indies, &c. and four or five fitted out every season for the Greenland fishery. The manufactures of steel, and both cast and wrought iron in this neighbourhood, are very considerable; that for wrought iron, at Swallwell, about three miles from Newcastle, up the river, commonly called Crowley's works, being the greatest in England. Here is also a considerable manufactory of broad and narrow woollen cloth (in Gateshead), and two sugar-houses which have been established here for some time. Likewise two public offices of insurances upon ships and merchandise, and three printing-offices, whose weekly newspapers circulate several hundred miles.”

“ † Of the exports from the river Tyne, Hutton, in his Plan, gives the following account: “ Tallow, of which there is shipped annually 40,000 cwt. butter, of which there is shipped annually 30,000 firkins, and salmon, for which there are a great many fisheries on the river, which produce immense quantities. But the greatest quantity of salmon is shipped from Berwick, with the title of Newcastle salmon—for anciently they were brought to Newcastle by land-carriage, and being shipped from this port, were called, with the fish really caught in this river, by the common name of Newcastle salmon in London.

“ Our imports are most kinds of merchandise, he adds, as corn and flour, wines, spirits, timber, tar, deals, flax, iron, fruits, smalts, ashes, &c.”

Pitch,

Pitch, tar—Sweden—Russia.”

‘ March 5th, 1787. From a general state of the Greenland whale-fishery (from the accounts of the vessels at that time fitting out at the different ports of the kingdom), it appeared that, at Newcastle upon Tyne, there were then preparing seven ships for that trade; burthen, in all, 2300 tons.’

The loss of the salt trade certainly arises from the improvement of other nations in this manufacture. In 1539, English ships 503; foreign ships 344, total 847, only entered the Tyne: in 1777, the last year to which this account reaches, there were 4376 English coasters, and 350 English ships cleared to cross the sea; in the whole 4726, with but 42 foreign ships; a circumstance which is not more flattering from the number employed than from the large proportion of our own shipping. In 1785, our author tells us, there were cleared at the custom-house 4339 vessels coastwise, and 491 over sea; in all 4830. In 1772, the revenue of the custom-house was estimated at 41,000*l.* per annum, exclusive of the shilling per annum, on all coals sent coastwise, paid to the duke of Richmond. His revenue amounts to about 15,000 pounds more.

Glass works are said to have been established, on building the Abbey of Weremouth, near the mouth of the Tyne, A. D. 674; and the little variations in the circumstances of the glass-makers, in consequence of disputes, are particularly detailed; but we must lament that in this part of the work, as well as what relates to the trade of Newcastle more generally, the information is scattered, often borrowed from other works, and sometimes passages of real importance are crowded into notes. It is a little remarkable that, except it be from incidental information, when it is least expected, we have little account of the trade of Newcastle since 1777; and even from 1772 to 1777; the accounts are far from being regular and well distinguished. ‘ In 1772, we are told from Hutton, that there were in Newcastle sixteen large glass-works: one for plate-glass; three crown-glass houses; five for broad or common window-glass; two for white or flint-glass, and five bottle-houses.’ What is the present number? though it only required him to ask the question, no account is given: yet every insignificant epitaph, every variation in coats of arms, is explained with great distinctness.

The monastery of Jarrow, which boasts of the education and residence of the Venerable Bede, is next described with our author’s usual minuteness; and every scrap which relates to the priory of Tinnmouth is apparently collected with great assiduity.

The History of Newcastle upon Tyne, as a corporate town or borough, is next described. It was at first the property of the Northumbrian kings, and afterwards held under royal

commission by the earls of that county. It was fortified by Robert, the son of William the Norman, and first converted into a borough by that monarch. After this, borough history is always the same, if names only are changed, and, to those who are acquainted with it, we need not add, that it is usually uninteresting. A list of the burgessees, representatives, and recorders is subjoined.

In the History of the Society of Merchants Adventurers, we find some curious facts relating to the ancient regulations of commerce, which appear to be partial, often absurd, inconsistent, and contradictory. The proportion of 30,000 sacks of wool, granted by the parliament to Edward III. imposed on Newcastle, was 73 sacks, one quarter, two stone, three pounds, and three fourths. In 1534, the exports of the Society to Zealand were skins, wool, lead, tanned leather, cloth, woollen cloth, and kerseys. The general exports were about this time canvass, sheep-skins, lamb-fells, lead, grindstones, coals, rough and tanned leather. An act made for the apparel of the apprentices in 1554, affords a curious picture of the manners of the times.

"An act for the apperell of the apyntyces, made in November, 1554, Mr. Cuthber Ellyson then beyng governour." After inveighing as follows against the vices and excesses of the times, "what dysfeng, cardeng, and *mummyng*, what typleng, daunseng and *brasenge* of harlots! what garded cotes, *jagged hose lyned with silke and cutt shoes!* what use of gytternes by nyght, *what wearynge of berds!* what daggers ys by them worne crosse overthwarre their backs, that theire dooings are more cumlye and decent for rageng ruffians than soemlie for honest apprentizes!" the act proceeds to forbid apprentices "to daunse, dysc, carde, or mum, or use any gytternes; to wear any cut hose, cut shoes or pounced jerkens, or any berds; to weare none other hoses than sloppes of course clothe wherof the yarde do not excede 12d.—their shoes and cotes to be of course clothe, and housewives makeing—they are to wear no straite hooft, but playn without cutts, pounsyng or gards."—The apprentices of mayors, sheriffs and aldermen are excepted in the dress articles of this very humiliating order."

"In 1556 this society occurs as trading in wools, lead, and cloth to Flanders, "at the colde and Easter marte, as also at Danke, and to France." The following year two ships of war are mentioned as conveying their fleet to Zealand."

In 1603 the exports were of a similar kind, but more varied, Woollens seem to have been exported in greater quantities and greater varieties: cottons, great and small, black lead, as well as lead ore, is added. We shall select one other passage, relating to the apprentices in 1697.

"November 24th, 1697, there is an order of this society,
8 forbidding

forbidding the apprentices to go to dancing or fencing-schools, to musick houses, lotteries, or play-houses—to keep horses—dogs for hunting, or fighting cocks, till they had served seven of their ten years.—They are to use no gold or silver trimming in their apparel or hats, nor to line any garment with any sort of silk—to wear no point-lace, nor any embroidery at all—no ruffles at their breasts, necks, or sleeves, and, lastly, no long wigs, nor any short ones above the value of fifteen shillings.

On the subject of coal, the author has collected all that he probably could hear of, or find in any author. His compilation is an ill-digested and an injudicious one; for he has not even established his first position, that coal is of vegetable origin. After having often examined the reputed fossilised trees in their beds, we own that we have many doubts of this original; nor can it be ascertained with certainty that coal even frequently owes its existence to vegetables. That it always does must be denied by those who trust to the observations of baron Born, who found coal in the veins of the cavities of lava, formed by retraction. Coal was certainly known to the Britons, and the name is derived from their language. The first mention of it among the Saxons is in 852, when it occurs in a grant made by the abbey of Peterborough. The first charter granted to the townsmen of Newcastle to dig coals was by Henry III. in 1239; but in 1306, its use was prohibited by proclamation in London, as it was said to corrupt the air with its stink and smoke.—This History contains many curious facts, which we should willingly have noticed if it would not have extended our article too far. An account of the coal-trade, on an average of six years, to the Christmas of 1776 we have subjoined.

‘To London, and other ports of Great Britain, 351,000 chaldrons of coals (of which 260,000 to London); to the British colonies and plantations 2,000 chaldrons; to foreign parts 27,000.

‘In all 380,000 chaldrons, Newcastle measure, per annum.’

The history of the twelve mysteries, the incorporated trading or manufacturing companies, next follows; and some of their bye-laws are curious. There are fifteen companies also, styled bye-trades; eight companies, distinct from the bye-trades, and eleven companies extinct; among the latter are cooks, spicers, vintners, bowyers, spurriers, &c. We find next a miscellaneous account of the officers and servants of the corporation; some particulars concerning the Corpus Christi plays; and an entire interlude, which may be called the Deluge, though it consists only of the command of the Almighty to Noah, and the devil's attempt, ‘by ploughing with the heifer,’ to prevent the building of the ark. It is, in its execution, greatly superior to the moralities in general. A short history of Newcastle, entitled
Annals

Annals and Historical Events, concludes the volume. The account of coins is somewhat curious; and it is evident, from the testimony adduced by Mr. Brand, that Henry I. coined pennies at Newcastle, probably the first money coined there. Newcastle had a considerable share in the former wars on the borders, the naval actions of the early periods of our naval history, and the civil wars, which brought the unfortunate Charles to the scaffold. These transactions are related with sufficient fidelity and impartiality. In the subsequent wars of Cromwell, Newcastle was often the scene of action; and we cannot resist the temptation of transcribing an original letter of Cromwell, written with his own hand, the day before the battle of Dunbar: we apprehend it has never been before printed.

“Deere sir, wee are upon an engagement very difficult, the enimie hath blocked up our way att the passe at Copper-speth, thorough which wee cannott gett without almost a miracle. He lyeth soe upon the hills that wee knowe not how to come that way without great difficulty, and our lying here dayly consumeth our men whoe fall sicke beyond imagination. I perceave your forces are not in a capacitye for preient releife, wherefore (whatever becomes of us) itt will be well for you to gett what forces you can together and the south to helpe what they can, the businesse neerely concerneth all good people. If your forces had beene in a readinesse to have fallen upon the back of Copperspith itt might have occasioned supplies to have come to us, but the only wise God knowes what is best, all shall worke for good, our spirits are comfortable (praised bee the Lord) though our present condition bee as it is, and indeed wee have much hope in the Lord, of whose mercy we have had large experience. Indeed doe you gett together what forces you can against them. Send to frendes in the south to help with more. Lett H. Vane know what I write. I would not make it publick least danger should accrue therby. You know what use to make hereoff. Let me heere from you. I rest your servaunt,

“O. CROMWELL.

“Its difficult for me to send to you, lett me heare from (you) after.

“Sept. 2d, 1650.

“For the Honble Sir Ar. Haselridge, at Newcastle or elsewhere, thease hast hast.”

Though this letter contains somewhat of his cant, yet it is clear, intelligible, and wholly the work of a man of business, understanding, and a calm steady resolution. In the rebellions of 1715 and 1745, the inhabitants of Newcastle testified great loyalty, and the events with which it was connected, are properly detailed.

The

The Appendix chiefly consists of acts of parliament and other state-papers, in confirmation of several parts of the volume, and a description of the contrivances employed to facilitate labour in the coal-mines.—On the whole, this work must be particularly valuable to the inhabitants of Newcastle: we only regret that our author has not extended the sphere of its utility, which he might easily have done, without adding greatly to the bulk or the expence, by more particular details respecting the commerce of this city. In every thing which relates to the embellishments of these volumes, no expence seems to have been spared.

Travels from St. Petersburg in Russia to various Parts of Asia. Illustrated with Maps. Two Volumes. By John Bell. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Creech, Edinburgh; Robinsons, London.

MR. Bell published his account of his travels in 1761; but either from a limited circulation, or impending avocations, we omitted to notice the work; it is better to recur to this second edition, which the demand for it has occasioned, and the value of the remarks renders very acceptable, than to pass it over altogether.

Our author, from a strong 'desire of seeing foreign parts,' went to Russia in the year 1714; and in the subsequent year undertook a journey to Ispahan, as an attendant on the Russian embassy to Persia, in the equivocal office of surgeon and secretary. As it was only in 1758 that he engaged in this work, at the particular request of some friends, the description of the country is perhaps less particular; the objects are described with less spirit, and the recollected ideas are less forcible. But in every part of these volumes, the plain unornamented style of the work strongly impresses on the reader's mind, the fidelity of the relator. The first journey is not so particular, nor so interesting as the others. From Petersburg Mr. Bell goes to Moscow; from thence, the course of the expedition is to the north-east, where they reach the Wolga at Casan, and pursue their journey either on the river, or by the side of its banks to Astrachan. They cross the western semicircular winding of the Caspian, debark at Nizebat, turn to the south-west to Tauris, and from thence proceed south-easterly to Ispahan. The map which is designed to illustrate this journey is tolerably good, but not so correct as the editor seems to believe it. The situation of places north of Astrachan is sufficiently correct; but in the Crimea, Cuban, and some parts of the Caspian, there seem to be several little mistakes which the *last* Russian maps have corrected. In

In this journey, which in the passage down the Caspian, the circuitous route to Tauris, and from thence to Ispahan, where our author crossed the scene of Alexander's conquests, seems to awaken curiosity and expectation, we meet with nothing very interesting. The Caspian, though to a naturalist an extraordinary scene, is described at first by our author as an object of horror; 'a great gulf in many places of dangerous navigation, and whose shores are inhabited by inhospitable and barbarous nations;' for all the inhabitants of the coast deserve this title except the Persians and Russians. Mr. Bell found it by experience an unpleasant sea, subject to storms, or perhaps still more vexatious calms. Its banks are often sandy and sedgy, sometimes clouded by numerous gloomy trees, noisome from reptiles, and troublesome from the mosquitoes: the Persians remarked at that time, that the water was retiring from the shore. In the account of Ispahan, and the reception of the ambassador, we find nothing which appears of sufficient importance for a quotation. The magnificence of the Persians consists, in a great measure, in the horses, elephants, and their ornaments: their luxuries in fountains of water, a luxury which must be sensibly felt in that climate, coffee and sherbat. At that time a physician enquired of Mr. Bell from whence tea came, and how it should be made.

The journey to Pekin is much more interesting, and the objects are more particularly described. The author goes again to Moscow, and along the Oka to Casan. He then proceeds to the north, and to the east so far as Kaygorod, from thence south-east across the mountains to Siberia and Tumen, which is a short distance only from Tobolski, the capital of Siberia, on the Irtysh. They crossed the Yenisey at Yeniseik; and, if allowance be made for the turnings which the nature of the country required, their course was easterly so far as Elimsky on the Elimm; a journey equal to thirty-five degrees of longitude, without calculating the circuitous windings and still within the vast and extensive district of Siberia. From Elimsky they went to the south, crossed the Angare river and the lake Baykel. Their course on the lake was easterly, and from thence they proceeded to Pekin, sometimes in a south, and sometimes in an easterly direction.

The first remarkable place is Tobolsky, the capital of Siberia; and as we have frequently heard of this kind of banishment in the Russian annals, we may remark, that the country, though cold, is pleasant; the aboriginal Tartars sober, civilised, and honest; the Russians not deficient even in the elegant accomplishments. The Swedish officers, after the battle of Pultowa, were confined in Siberia, and felt no misfortune but

but their national defeat, and the distance from their homes. They greatly contributed to disseminate the knowledge of music, and the elegant, as well as useful accomplishments of a civilised nation.

The Irish, on which Tobolsky is built, rises in Tartary, from the lake Korzan, in latitude 47° N. and, after passing the mountains, glides through a fertile vale till it arrives at Sedmy Palati, the house of the seven rooms, built by Tamerlane or Gengis Khan. Several of these rooms were filled with scrolls of glazed paper, some of which the czar Peter sent to the Royal Academy of Paris. The academicians, we believe M. Formey, not willing to be thought unacquainted with the Tartarean characters, gave some account of them, which M. Stæhlin has told us was afterwards found to be entirely false. The first part of the anecdote is to be found in this journal, but the subsequent one in the work which we examined in our last volume. It leads us to remark, that these volumes might be rendered more interesting by judicious notes extracted from the Russian travels of Pallas, &c. with the assistance of other authors. Many of Mr. Bell's predictions, which shew a sound judgment and no inconsiderable penetration, have been since supported by actual discoveries: and the best eulogium on our traveller would be short remarks consisting of what has been discovered in the last thirty years. The account of the Kontaysha, the monarch whom the Europeans have called the great Cham of Tartary, is original and authentic. We wish to preserve it.

‘The territories of this prince are bounded by three of the most potent empires in the world; on the north by Russia, by China on the east, and by the country of the Great Mogul to the south. From the two first he is separated by desert plains, and from the third by almost impassable mountains. To the south-west his frontiers reach near to Bucharia. The Kontaysha is a very powerful prince, and able to bring into the field at a short warning, an hundred thousand horsemen, who are all of them able-bodied men, well mounted, and armed with bows, arrows, lances, and sabres. This is a greater number of horse than any prince that I know can muster, except his Russian majesty and the emperor of China. These Tartars live in tents all the year, removing from place to place as called by necessity or inclination. This is the most ancient and pleasant manner of life. It is entertaining to hear them commiserate those who are confined to one place of abode, and obliged to support themselves by labour, which they reckon the greatest slavery.

‘The Kontaysha has always some thousands of his subjects camped near himself, who treat him with great veneration and respect. And, in justice to him, it must be confessed, that he

is as attentive to the interests of his people, and as assiduous in the administration of justice in particular, as if they were his own children.'

The Russians, as Mr. Bell predicted, have made great discoveries on the eastern side of Asia; but they have added nothing to this account. The Tartar remains discovered in tombs, show that the inhabitants were a civilised and elegant race, while Europe probably was plunged in ignorance and barbarism. The Tongusi, said to be the aborigines of Siberia, are particularly described, but we cannot trace any resemblance between them and the original inhabitants of Canada, which are now well known. Mr. Bell, from his information, thought that there was a great similitude; but if it were possible to derive the former from the latter, they must have reached Canada by a passage to the south of Nootka sound, probably by that strait, if it exist, denominated from Fuente. This race inhabit the whole country northward to the frozen ocean, but how far they extend to the east is not known: our author found them in about 100° E. longitude.

Every step in this part of Mr. Bell's route is interesting, for it affords scenes and facts little known and scarcely subject to change; but the different passages are of a miscellaneous kind, which we have not room to copy, and which will not admit of abridgment. The Baykall Sea is fresh; it is about fifty miles broad, except about the middle, where it is greatly contracted. We have mentioned it, as it affords an explanation of a fact which has greatly puzzled naturalists. The water, we have said, is fresh, though the communication with the north sea is open, and this communication was formerly more considerable than at this time. The Selenga, and various rivers which flow into it, counterbalance the influx of the sea, and prevent the salt from contaminating the lake, but in its former situation when the communication was free, seals and herrings found their way into it; and they have remained there, by degrees accustoming themselves to the change of element which has produced some changes in their forms. The omully is undoubtedly the herring, and the seal is still less altered. In a similar way, we may account for the appearance of fish in rivers, and even in lakes which have no connexion with the sea, where a continued series of ages has changed their form and their manners. Most, if not all the great rivers of Siberia, have their courses to the north and the north-west.

The inhabitants of this vast tract have been described in many different works, particularly in a very plain, unobtrusive, but instructive one, styled simply 'Russia.' Of the lama

nia and the high priest, styled Delai Lama, many idle ridiculous tales have been related : we shall extract a short account of these venerable personages from Mr. Bell.

‘ This extraordinary man assumes to himself the character of omniscience, which is the interpretation of the word Kutuchtu ; and the people are taught to believe that he really knows all things past, present, and future. As his intelligence by means of his lamas is very extensive, he is easily able to impose on the vulgar in this particular. They also believe that he is immortal, not that his body lives always, but that his soul upon the decay of an old one, immediately transmigrates into some young human body, which by certain marks the lamas discover to be animated by the soul of the Kutuchtu, and he is accordingly treated as high priest.

‘ When the spirit of the Kutuchtu has taken possession of a new body, that is, in plain English, when he is dead, the lamas are immediately employed to discover in what part of the world this wonderful person is regenerated, or born again, as they express it. They need, however, go to no great distance to find him ; for, the affair being previously concerted among the chief lamas, they soon determine the choice of a successor, who generally happens to be a young boy that has been well instructed how to behave on that occasion. When a successor is pretended to be found, a company of lamas are sent to examine the matter, who carry along with them many toys, such as small silver bells, and things of that nature, which belonged to the former Kutuchtu, intermixed with others that did not. All these are laid before the child, who picks out such things as belonged to his predecessor, and discovers the greatest fondness for them, but rejects with disgust whatever is not genuine. Besides this trial, some questions are put to him relative to wars or remarkable events, in his former state ; all which are answered to the satisfaction of the conclave, whereupon he is unanimously declared to be the self-same Kutuchtu, is conducted with great pomp and ceremony to Urga, and lodged in the tent of the high priest.

‘ Till the new Kutuchtu arrives at a certain age, he is entirely under the government of the lamas, and few are permitted to see him, except at a great distance, and even then it is not easy to get access to him. It may seem surprising, that in so numerous an assembly of lamas, no intrigues should be carried on, nor disputes arise, among the electors. All is conducted without noise or contention. It is, however, imagined, that the authority of the prince greatly contributes to their unanimity.

‘ The Mongals relate that their Kutuchtu now has lived fourteen generations, and renews his age every moon ; for at the new moon he appears like a youth ; when she is full, like a full-grown man ; but, when near the change, he is an old man with grey hairs.’

The Delai lama, who is also immortal, is the high priest of the Tongguls, as the Kutuchtu is of the Mongalls, but reckoned a superior personage : we have heard of him more particularly since the first edition of these Travels, from the travellers in Thibet ; and he really appears to be a good-humoured, well-behaved kind of deity, for a deity he is generally allowed to be in the country. Our author is a little scandalous when he says these lamas are scarcely better than shamans (priests who pretend to conjuration), of a superior order. They are not, however, deep philosophers, for they explain earthquakes by supposing that God placed the earth on a golden frog, and that whenever this frog scratched its head or stretched out its foot, the part of the earth over the organ was immediately shaken.

The frontiers, as usual, are deserted, not only from political motives, but from their sandy unfruitful nature, and the very little water occasionally scattered in distant wells. Of the 'endless wall,' the frontier wall of China, our traveller gives a very good account : in his description it appears to form a very respectable barrier. The Chinese dynasty is at present of Tartarean origin, but the Chinese are contemptible in the field. This vast wall shows at once their cowardice ; and the monarch of that æra seems to have owed more of his power to policy than to the courage of his people, though the army is so great, that the city and province of Pekin is said to contain 120,000 effective men. After passing the wall, marks of cultivation began to appear ; and the country, though much farther to the north than that part which is the mart of the present trade, shows appearances of great fertility and good cultivation. Of the emperor's palace we shall add a short description.

On the 28th, the day appointed for the ambassador's public audience of the emperor, horses were brought to our lodgings for the ambassador and his retinue ; the emperor being then at a country house called Tzan-shu-yang, about six miles westward from Pekin. We mounted at eight in the morning, and about ten arrived at court, where we alighted at the gate, which was guarded by a strong party of soldiers. The commanding officers conducted us into a large room, where we drank tea, and staid about half an hour, till the emperor was ready to receive us. We then entered a spacious court inclosed with high brick-walls, and regularly planted with several rows of forest-trees, about eight inches diameter, which I took to be limes. The walks are spread with small gravel ; and the great walk is terminated by the hall of audience, behind which are the emperor's private apartments. On each side of the great walk are fine flower-plots and canals. As we advanced, we found all the

the ministers of state and officers belonging to the court seated upon fur-cushions, cross-legged, before the hall, in the open air; among these, places were appointed for the ambassador and his retinue; and in this situation we remained, in a cold frosty morning, till the emperor came into the hall. During this interval, there were only two or three servants in the hall, and not the least noise was heard from any quarter. The entry to the hall is by seven marble steps, the whole length of the building. The floor is finely paved with a neat checker work of white and black marble. The edifice is quite open to the south; and the roof supported by a row of handsome wooden pillars, octangular, and finely polished; before which is hung a large canvas, as a shelter from the heat of the sun or inclemencies of the weather.

The emperor is described as a venerable, sagacious, and politic prince. The little anecdotes preserved of him, strongly support this character.

Among other things, he told the ambassador that he was informed his Czarish Majesty exposed his person to many dangers, particularly by water, at which he was much surprised; but desired he would take the advice of an old man, and not hazard his life by committing himself to the rage of the merchants' waves and winds, where no valour could avail. We were near enough to hear this piece of friendly and wholesome advice.

The emperor was now in his eightieth year, and the sixtieth of his reign. Of the city we have a very short and unsatisfactory account: the country in general, resembles, in our author's description, what we chiefly see in the pictures imported from China; plains with frequent and often unconnected and abrupt hills. About Pekin, the cold in winter is so great as to freeze the water sufficiently hard to bear a carriage. The tea-shrub does not flourish here with vigour in the open air.

The Chinese are said, on good authority, to have known the use of gunpowder 2000 years; but they have only of late (the author wrote about 1720) applied it to the purposes of war and fire-works, though at that time excellent, it had not long deserved the same character. Printing was of equal date; but their mode was by stamps: they had not then, nor have they yet, arrived at the use of moveable metallic characters. The chronology of the Chinese, the emperor told them, was extended farther back than that of the Scriptures; but he allowed that it ended in fabulous accounts. The loadstone was said, on the same authority, to be of equal antiquity with gunpowder, and at the same period to have been applied to navigation. Their records furnished them with an account of a deluge about the time of Noah; but those only on the plains were drowned: the mountains were not covered. The Chinese

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ness idol is evidently of Tartar origin ; and the religion of Confucius is, probably, little more than a moral system. Of the tea, Mr. Bell gives some account ; but, though admitted freely to the potteries, he seems to have known little of the earthen ware of China. We suspect that many things were concealed.

These are a few of the circumstances which we have collected, from our author's narrative ; but though we have selected those which appeared to us most interesting and entertaining, many more may be found in the work. In his return, we find nothing particularly new or valuable.

M. de Lange's Journal follows ; and to it some very useful explanatory notes are added. This gentleman was the agent left by the ambassador to conduct the affairs of Russia at the imperial court ; and the journal is introduced by a very intelligent and well connected history of the intercourse between the Russians and Chinese, who, though the nearest neighbours on the south-eastern boundaries of the Russian territories, if we except the wandering Tartars, for ages knew nothing of each other's existence. This journal chiefly contains the political negotiations in the court of Pekin, whose object it was, to render the residence of M. de Lange, whom they suspected, disagreeable. The Chinese pretended also, that the Czar had not performed his part of the agreement, in return for which the residence of an agent at Pekin was allowed.

In May 1722, our author attended the Czar in his journey to Derbent, an expedition which the emperor undertook to assist the Sophi of Persia against the Afghans, his rebellious subjects, who had seized on Candahar, and carried their excursions occasionally towards Ispahan. This journal does not contain much novelty : the most interesting part is the description of the chiefs of the different tribes and their ladies. There is also a particular account of Circassia, a country which some late memoirs have brought nearer to our view ; and of the Czar, whom Mr. Bell describes with the warmth of a rational admirer. He remarks, and he speaks from his own observation, as well as that of many others, that excess in drinking was by no means one of the failings of this prince, or at least a common or a frequent one.

The last Journey is to Constantinople, undertaken in 1737 and 1738, to lay the foundation of a peace between Russia and Germany, who were at that period also in alliance against the Ottomans and the Porte ; for, during a war, no subject of the opposing powers is admitted into the Turkish dominions. This little journal contains many particular facts and descriptions,

tions, which are very interesting at this period, though they will not admit of abridgement, and our article is too far extended to admit of more quotations. Mr. Bell describes also the capital; but the city of Constantine has been so often visited, that a former traveller cannot be expected to teach us any thing new.

Such are the outlines and principal traits of these Travels, which our readers will probably think deserve much attention. We have found them very instructive and entertaining; nor can we give a better proof of that opinion than by deviating so far from our usual custom, in taking up the second edition of a work, and extending an account of volumes which have been long published. The only apology is, that they were overlooked by us, and we think also that they have not been sufficiently attended to by the world. Mr. Bell must be ranked among the most attentive and best informed travellers.

A Tour to the West of England, in 1788. By the rev. S. Shaw, M. A. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Robson and Clarke.

THAT the human mind is happiest when its powers are in a progressive state of improvement, may be perhaps safely allowed; but our author steps on too fast, when he speaks of employment as synonymous to improvement, and contributing to the 'blissful state which we are capable of enjoying' here below. Employment, as calling forth our faculties and powers; travelling, as a kind of employment which engages our attention and exercises those faculties, is equally a source of pleasure and improvement; but when this is admitted, if we do not add to it, the capacity of observation and knowledge of different subjects of natural history, of commerce, and of manufactures, what is observed makes no more impression on the mind than the leaf of the sensitive plant on those who know not its properties, or do not attend to its marks of irritability. It may depend on the difficulty of finding one mind capable of many different views, or acquainted with a variety of subjects; or it may be owing to those who are best informed being confined by business, by study, or inclination: yet it is a fact, that in England, where commerce, agriculture, manufactures, mines, as well as different objects of natural history, are common, we have scarcely found any, indeed we have found no scientific traveller. It has happened, seduced perhaps by a popular example and a prevailing taste, that the pictures and antiquities of different houses and cities have had their admirers and their commentators; but Birmingham and Gloucestershire have established manufacto-

ries unnoticed ; we have extended inland navigations through obstacles unheard of, and reputed insurmountable, without the advantages of having the principles of the victory explained ; and we have astonished the world with our earthen ware, without having any more than a casual information, that the manufacture is chiefly carried on in Staffordshire and Lancashire.

We mean not by these general reflections to blame Mr. Shaw for not having done more, since he has done all that he proposed, and as much as his time would seemingly permit. He has joined pleasure with profit, and what he saw with satisfaction he has described with advantage. To what he observed of houses and of cities, he has added short observations of antiquity and history, compiled with judgment and propriety.

In the preparation for his journey, while he with his companions were consulting to what parts they should direct their tour, the neighbourhood of London attracted their attention. They rambled round its environs to Cannons, Hampstead, Highgate, Caen Wood, Islington, Hackney, Wanstead, Greenwich, and Blackheath. They then began their tour to Uxbridge. They left the Oxford road and went to Amersham, Wendover, Aylesbury, Middleton, Woodstock, and Oxford. The travellers then inclined towards the London road ; went to Abingdon, Nuneham, and ascended the brow of Shotover ; they returned to Oxford, pursuing afterwards the direct road to Worcester, from whence they went to Malvern and Hereford ; to Hampton-Court, built by Lenthall, down the river Wye to Monmouth, to Chepstow, and to Gloucester. They diverged to Cheltenham, returned to Gloucester, went to Cirencester, to Bristol, to Bath, and very nearly in the post road to Plymouth. They went through Cornwall, returning by Tavistock and Okehampton to Exeter, and from thence to Dorchester and to Weymouth ; through Lymington and the New Forest to Southampton, to the isle of Wight, Portsmouth, Farnham, Winchester, Basingstoke, and London.

We have given an outline of this tour, as our readers, who are acquainted with these spots, must in general know from it what the work contains. They seem to have suffered no object of curiosity to escape ; but their attention was chiefly directed to different prospects, the various seats and grounds of the nobility and others which were curious or beautiful. We cannot pretend to follow Mr. Shaw, or to enumerate every object of their curiosity : we shall, however, extract a passage or two, which may give the reader an adequate idea of the varied entertainment which he will meet with in the volume.

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We now arrived at Malvern, a small hamlet at the feet of those immense hills that had been our principal object for many miles. Ordering dinner at this charming inn, we procured an intelligent guide to conduct us to the highest summit: the day being favourable and pleasant, I scarce remember a more enchanting excursion, without a possibility of fatigue from so gradual an ascent on nature's carpet, and in little more than half an hour we gained this summit of perfection. When we say perfection, we mean in a limited sense; there are certainly two sorts of perfection, relative and absolute. If the parts of a scene be beautiful, we are content to ascribe to it the honour of the first; but of the other, the ingredients must not only be beautiful, but of every possible variety. In different countries, or different parts of the same country, many sorts of the former may always be found, but the latter I fear is seldom, if ever, to be met with in all the vast round of sublunary researches. We mount the high tops of a Skiddaw, or Ben Lomond, and are lost in wonder and admiration of those immense heaps of rocks that tower around us; they are undoubtedly formed for astonishment and delight, and are the source of sublimest ideas; but let not these alone engross our whole attention, or alienate our affections entirely from other objects; let us cast our eye a while on this extensive scenery around us, and compare the difference; on one side a champain of the richest cultivation possible, interspersed with innumerable mansions, lawns, woods, and the other golden plantations of the country; peopled with cheerful and thriving towns, and enlivened by the busy streams of the Severn and the Avon. These are the principal features in the vale of Evesham; on the opposite side are various winding vallies mingled with hop-grounds, gardens, seats, and swelling hills of verdant wood, all sweetly softened by the mellow light of autumn, and encircled by a majestic range of mountains; the Wreking and Clav-hills in Shropshire, seen over Ludlow; the Black-mountains in Brecknockshire; the Skimming-hills in Monmouthshire; Abergavenny and Ledbury-mount; Gloucestershire hills over the city and Cheltenham; the Leeky hills towards Birmingham, &c. In short, nothing is here wanting to constitute the beautiful, but here is a deficiency in those two grand composites of the north, rock and lakes, to constitute the sublime. With these additions we should then find an absolute perfection.

If we contemplate these scenes too with the eye of an historian, what a train of ideas will they afford! instead of groves of smiling fruits, we may fancy moving armies of glittering spears and helmets; instead of yon silver gliding streams, we may imagine rivers of blood; such were these plains when haughty Cromwell and his 30,000 men marched over them, and appeared on Red-hill against Charles II. with only 1200, in August, 1651. No more now the din of war is heard; Tewkesbury, Upton, Powick, and thou fair city, Worcester,

your lofty towers no more are seen to shake, your buildings fall in dreadful conflagration, nor streets pour down the sanguine flood. All now arise in conscious harmony to gild these scenes now sunk in peace and crowned with plenty. Maintain long this lovely reign, ye sons of fame! and ye who reap the fruits of industry, store in your plenteous and golden crops, and quaff your homely nectar in joyful tranquillity.

Our author's account of the navigable canal from the town of Basingstoke to the river Wey in Surry, and thence to communicate with London by the Thames, is new and curious.

'An act of parliament for this purpose was obtained in the year 1778: and the legislature, convinced of the utility of the scheme, for the encouragement of the adventurers, granted them more than usual terms of advantage; particularly in giving them a right to half tonnage for all sort of manure, in which a view was had to the cultivation of that prodigious tract of waste lands, Bagshot and other adjacent heaths. It was thought better not at that time to push the scheme, during the burdens of our expensive and complicated war; this desirable event therefore being postponed till the return of peace, has now fully taken place; subscriptions being raised to the amount of 86,000*l.* amongst about 150 proprietors, with a reserve of raising in the same manner what more may be wanted. Mr. Pinkerton is the contractor, and Mr. Jeshop the surveyor, who have engaged to complete the same in four years. They have begun to work in the parish of Chertsey, near the river Wey, and on the farther side of Grewell-hill, about two miles west of Odiham, where there will be a tunnel of upwards of 800 yards in length. I visited this place soon after, and saw above 100 men at work, preparing a wide passage for the approach to the mouth, but they had not entered the hill. The morning was remarkably fine,

"The pale descending year, yet pleasing still," and such an assembly of these sons of labour greatly enlivened the scene. The contractor, agreeable to the request of the company of proprietors, gives the preference to all the natives who are desirous of this work, but such is the power of use over nature, that while these industrious poor are by all their efforts incapable of earning a sustenance, those who are brought from similar works, cheerfully obtain a comfortable support. The property under which this tunnel is intended to pass, belonged lately to lord Northington, but now by purchase to the present lord Dorchester. The hill is clothed with a beautiful growing wood of oak, called Butter-wood, which uniting with another part called Barkley, extends a considerable length.'

It is undoubtedly 'an idea of grandeur and opulence' to reflect, that if this tour were more hastily pursued, the traveller might sleep twelve nights in twelve cities, viz. London, Oxford, Worcester, Hereford, Gloucester, Bristol, Bath, Wells, Exeter,

Exeter, Salisbury, Winchester, and Westminster. If to the accommodations of the inns, the goodness of the roads and carriages, and the quickness of conveyance be added, what a contrast will it form to travelling in the interior parts of Spain? We now copy from the description of a traveller in this part of the continent who sits beside us. The general mode is on mules, as the roads are, in general, impassable for carriages: these obstinate animals walk only at the rate of four miles an hour. From the road, where there is any, it is generally necessary to deviate, as it is swampy, deep, and full of holes: with great fatigue forty miles a day can be scarcely accomplished, for the owner of the mule will attend you on foot. When you reach the inns, you find rooms without furniture, gloomy, dark, and dirty. Beds are sometimes not to be procured, and those which are met with are full of dirt and vermin. If you ask what provisions are in the house, the common answer is, *lo que u'n trahe*, 'what you have brought with you,' and it is by no means an uncommon case, that they have not even bread to spare. If you meet with the luxury of a coach on a road that is practicable, you will find a heavy cumbersome vehicle, without springs, drawn by six or eight mules with bells, and the driver sits on the fore-part of it with his pocket full of stones, which he throws at those mules he thinks idle, calling on them at the same time by their names. The noise is harsh, disagreeable, and incessant: their longest day's journey does not exceed forty miles, even when no accidents from bogs or any other impediments occur.

On the whole, Mr. Shaw's tour, which must have been highly pleasing, is very agreeable: in his description it is illustrated by various quotations, by an extensive knowledge of history, of local events, and genealogies.

Letters upon the Poetry and Music of the Italian Opera. Addressed to a Friend. By the late Mr. John Brown. Small 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Elliot and Kay.

MR. Brown was a painter, who had spent ten years in Italy, in pursuit of his professional acquisitions. In that delightful country, where art vies with nature in leading the mind a captive by the most elegant amusements, he was not long insensible to the charms of music. He describes, as he probably felt them, with the most impassioned warmth, with a fervour not very distant from enthusiasm. These Letters are in some measure didactic; they are designed to explain the source of that fascination which the admirers of the poetry and music of Italy so cordially feel.

He begins with the recitative, which is designed to express narratives, general remarks, abstract sentiments, and whatever is less capable of ornament, or which is not aimed at the feelings and the heart. It is in measure and accompanied by poetry, because the transition from it to the air shall appear less violent and unnatural, because sometimes the subject of the recitative, or its growing passion, may lead more naturally to the motivo, the strain, or subject of the air. In Italy, we find, and it is a remark of more consequence than it may at first appear, the accented syllable is the long one, and in music its time is doubled. It is not our business to stop, in order to apply this practice in the descendants of the Romans, to the doctrines of their predecessors respecting the rhythmus, but having noticed it for the sake of future remarks, we shall go on to transcribe some passages from Mr. Brown's Letters on the recitative.

‘The following speech, though terror be uniformly expressed by the whole of it, seems not at all a fit subject to be comprehended under, or expressed by one regular strain :

‘Bring me unto my trial when you will.—
 Dy’d he not in his bed?—Where should he die?
 Oh! torture me no more—I will confess—
 Alive again!—then shew me where he is;
 I’ll give a thousand pounds to look on him.
 —He hath no eyes;—the dust hath blinded them—
 Comb down his hair—look! look! it stands upright
 Like lime-twigs set to catch my winged foul.—
 Give me some drink, &c.—

Shakespeare's Henry VI.

‘But whilst the Italians conceived such passages to be incompatible with that regularity of measure, and that unity of strain which is essential to air, they felt, however, that they were of all others the most proper subject for musical expression: and accordingly, both the poet and the musician, seem, by mutual consent, to have bestowed on such passages their chief study; and the musician in particular, never fails to exert on them his highest and most brilliant powers. It is to them they adapt that species of recitative termed *recitativo istrumentale*, or *recitativo obbligato*—accompanied recitative. In this kind of recitative, the singer is in a more special manner left to the dictates of his own feelings and judgment with respect to the measure: he must not indeed reverse the natural prosody of the language, by making short what should be long, or vice versa; but he may not only proportionally lengthen the duration of each syllable, but he may give to particular syllables what length he pleases, and precipitate considerably the pronunciation of others, just as he thinks the expression requires. The march of the notes is very different in this from that of the common or simple recitative;

native; delicacy, passion, force, dignity, according to the different expressions of the words, are its characteristics. It is in this species of song that the finest effects of the chromatic, and, as far as our system of musical intervals is susceptible of it, even of the enharmonic scale, are peculiarly felt; and it is here also that the powers of modulation are most happily, because most properly, employed, by changes of tone analogous to the variety of the matter, in a wonderful manner enforcing and characterising the transitions which are made from one subject or emotion to another. Here, too, the whole orchestra lends its aid; nor are the instruments limited to the simple duty of supporting and directing the voice. In this high species of recitative, it is the peculiar province of the instrumental parts, during those pauses which naturally take place between the bursts of passion which a mind strongly agitated breaks into, to produce such sounds which serve to awake in the audience sensations and emotions similar to those which are supposed to agitate the speaker. Here, again, another fine distinction is made by the Italians between the descriptive and the pathetic powers of music. These last are proper to the voice, the former to the orchestra alone. Thus the symphonies which accompany this kind of recitative, besides the general analogy they must have to the immediate sentiments, and even to the character of the speaker, are often particularly descriptive of the place in which he is, or of some other concomitant circumstance which may serve to heighten the effect of the speech itself."

Mr. Brown must have been a composer who would have spoken to the heart, and might have given additional force to the language of Shakspeare.

The airs are of different kinds. Our author speaks of them in their order, as distinguished by particular titles. The aria cantabile, the aria de portamento, aria de mezzo character, aria parlante, aria di bravura, aria di agilita, rondo, cavatena, aria agitata, aria di fmanie, and aria infuriata. These different airs he describes with much feeling and precision: indeed he often describes what music should be rather than what it is, for his enthusiasm carries him to portray a perfection which seldom exists. His remarks on imitative music are, though somewhat fanciful, on the whole pleasing and just.

"Setting aside then the more obscure analogies in music, which are felt, perhaps, only in consequence of a certain organization, or a degree of imagination not common to all men, it is surely evident that resemblances or analogies may be produced by means of sounds, and of their rythm and arrangement to every thing in nature, which we perceive in consequence of sound and motion: thus the whistling of winds, the noise of thunder, the roaring and dashing of the sea, the murmurs of a stream,

stream, the whispers of the breeze,—the solemn waving of a lofty pine, the forked motion and momentary appearance of lightning, the grand swell of a billow, the rapidity of a torrent, the meanders of a rivulet, or the smooth gliding of a silent stream, must, even to those who have not a musical ear, appear all within the compass of musical imitation: for this plain reason, that positive resemblance is, in fact, the ground of this imitation. Nor does the analogy seem much strained, when we say that music may imitate the tread of a giant, the light and nimble footsteps of a nymph, or even the motion of those fanciful beings which Shakspeare has described as “chasing with printless feet the ebbing Neptune.” But the imitation of which music is capable, is not stinted to such positive resemblances as those now cited; general ideas of hugeness and immensity, of lightness and elegance, of operations that are performed with difficulty or with facility, of order, of confusion, of exertion, of repose, of energy, of debility, of similarity, of discrepancy, of union, of incompatibility, and many more, may be clearly conveyed by different qualities, modifications, arrangements, rythm, and combinations of musical sounds. With respect to the more distant and obscure analogies, such as that to cold, light, darkness, pain, and the like, as to those who are less sensible of the effects of music, they may seem to originate rather in the enthusiasm of the hearer, than in any reality in the art, I shall not insist on them.’

We must not leave these Letters without recommending them strongly to our readers, for their intrinsic merit, for the sake of our author's widow and son, left by his premature death in a state far from affluent.

A Reply to a Pamphlet, entitled Considerations on the War with the Turks. By M. De Volney. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

THE work to which this able reply refers, we examined in volume LXVIth. p. 131; and in March last we noticed M. Peyssonel's answer to it. M. Volney, with some local knowledge, but perhaps with no very accurate political information, prophesied the downfall of the crescent. He considered the Turks as an effeminate race, who could not stand opposed to the emperor and the czarina, who had lost their Solymans and their Mahomets, by whom they were led on to victory. M. Peyssonel, the consul-general of France at Smyrna, with better information, but at least equal prejudice, answered particularly the ‘Considerations’ of M. Volney, and combated every position. Our present author, with more acuteness and judgment than either, warmly attacks the eastern traveller, and points out many historical
and

and political mistakes. He seems not to have seen M. Peyssonel's examination, for he tells us, that the *Considerations* have not yet been answered.

He begins with mentioning M. Volney's mistake in the chronology of the Turks who emerged from the Caspian in the ninth century, (800 years since, instead of 400) and then endeavours to show, that, though less warlike, the sultans have displayed as much spirit and firmness as their boasted predecessors. The last sultan showed many proofs of an enlightened mind, of a firmness and judgment in which he exceeded either Selim or Solymán. He then traces the causes of the present war in their embryo; gives an advantageous representation of the Turkish conduct; and in his account of the events which have occurred since they have been opposed in the field to the Russians and Imperialists, he attempts to prove that they have lost no part of their former spirit and enthusiasm. The Imperialists may boast of the capture of Novi, of Gradiška and Jassy, at the expence of 100,000 men, and money in proportion: the Russians have to boast of Choczim and Oczakow, and to deplore the loss of 30,000 men; we may add, with a depreciation of the rouble from fifty-six to thirty-two. Choczim was gained with difficulty, and Oczakow by accident, while, notwithstanding the boasted victories of the *Vienno Gazette*, our author, who speaks with the confidence which undisputed information should alone inspire, tells us, that the Turks were often victors, and have at least conquered, if they have not kept, as much ground as the Russians and Imperialists have acquired, by having over-run the Bannat.

Supposing (adds our intelligent author) the Turks driven from Europe, 'what is this kingdom, the emanations of whose legislative wisdom are to enlighten the ignorant Turk? A nation scarcely half emerged from that cloud of barbarism and ignorance, which covered the chief of its territories at the beginning of the present century. Even at this day, where are we to find in the most uncivilized part of the Turkish dominions, more profound ignorance, more savage barbarism, than amongst the inhabitants of Russian Lapland, Siberia, or Kamtschatka? Unable to introduce the arts of civilization into its own dominions, does it think itself equal to the arduous task of practising its legislative abilities with any probability of success, on strangers adverse to the Russian name, adverse to its manners, and still more adverse to its religion. A change in the latter is absolutely necessary to any revolution of the government. The precepts of the Koran are the rule of legislative as well as of moral conduct; the superstructure of administration is founded on this basis. The present system of faith is not only a religious but a political system. Would Russia then

then introduce a new Koran, a new system of faith? Without it all else would be useless. Is Turkey in a condition to receive it? I may be perhaps told, that the religion of Mahomet was established by arms; the conviction of its truths enforced not by arguments, but by the point of the sword. That this was partially the case I am willing to allow; but there were many circumstances at the time, which combined to pave the way for the admission of a new faith.

These circumstances were the contests among Christians; their persecutions of each other, and probably the sensual prospects which the religion of Mahomet held out as the rewards of another state. If the events which the combined powers expect, should happen, they will, in a few years, add perhaps, depopulated provinces to their crowns; for, our author informs us, that since the year 1770, the inhabitants of the Crimea are decreased two-thirds, from 250 to 60 thousand.

Sweden, Poland, Prussia, and the Germanic league are, according to the account before us, greatly interested in preventing the conquest of Turkey; but we still think that the Mediterranean powers should look on this contest as of the greatest importance. France, however, the main spring of Mediterranean politics, is in confusion at home, and cannot turn her views to the proceedings of other powers. We ought also to observe, that our author's account of the situation of Sweden, &c. shows that he possesses no inconsiderable share of historical or political knowledge. His eagerness hastened him into a few trifling mistakes, and we cannot think that the two campaigns have been so highly favourable to the credit of the Turks as he has represented them. But it is by no means a doubt, that if they can support two other campaigns without material loss, their adversaries must sue for peace: their resources are not equal to the attempt. Military men, however, know, that the events of the present summer will be in some degree decisive, by the junction of the two armies at the gates of Sophia, where the Russians will cover the Crimea and carry the war to the gates of Constantinople. If we have any foresight they will not succeed.

Hints, &c. submitted to the serious Attention of the Clergy, Nobility, and Gentry, newly associated. By a Layman. Second Edition. 8vo. 2s. White and Son.

THIS excellent little work is attributed to a nobleman of high rank, who, for some time, enjoyed the highest civil office in the kingdom. The truth of the report we need not examine: it is enough to be able to say, that these Hints would

would do credit to the head and heart of any man in this nation. The New Association, our readers know, was established in order to promote piety and virtue, to discountenance licentiousness, and to check the progress of infidelity. The author, in conformity with their views, offers these Hints to their consideration. It is not, says he, the punishment of the petty breaker of the sabbath, the suppression of vice in the lower ranks, that will fulfil the object of your institution: virtue and piety must become respectable by your example: the public worship of God must be countenanced by your presence, and the libertine must be awed by an exemplary conduct in those whose rank and stations render them objects of attention and notice.

The greater part of the pamphlet relates, however, to another, though a collateral subject. The forms and the language of the present Liturgy are such as many cannot join in consistently with their religious principles, who would be regular attendants on public worship. If example is, therefore, to have its full effect, these obstructions, in the way of conscientious and scrupulous minds, must be removed. It appears, that in the first 125 years after the Reformation, the Common Prayer was revised no less than eight times; and in this age of enquiry, when the Scriptures have been elucidated by repeated collations of manuscripts, and the exertions of the most judicious critics, another revision is undoubtedly, our author thinks, become necessary. He shows, that Sancroft, who, as chaplain to the bishop of Durham, assisted at the last examination in 1661, so far from thinking that this form was the fixed and ultimate one, proposed, when archbishop of Canterbury, in 1677, another revision. When the meeting at the Feathers tavern was at an end, it was supposed that the bishops would soon engage voluntarily in the cause, but the calamities of the war may have turned away their attention.

“If I presume (says the author) to observe, that six years are now elapsed since the termination of the war, I beseech the right reverend lords not to consider me as doubting their intentions to fulfil our just expectations, but solely to remind them of the circumstance, and humbly to represent to them, that the nation have a right to demand from their lordships some activity, some proofs of a sincere disposition of reconciling, as far as may be, all good men to the communion of the established church; and therefore, of furnishing the grand and sole instrument by which infidelity can be effectually curbed. Bigotry, and its fellow-traveller ignorance do, while they last in every country, fix the minds of the people strangely to certain things; but when the light of learning enters, if all matters of worship, and of faith particularly, which scripture does not warrant, are not removed

removed away as fast, the consequence will be certain. These errors once discovered, and proved to be such, will bring an imputation of priestcraft on the clergy, and drive off multitudes into infidelity. So much prejudice and injury any unsound parts of public divine service bring on the rest: even when these last are able to stand the test of the most searching eyes. How soon would every unfair insinuation at once be silenced, now too frequently dropped, as if mankind considered their lordships to be too much attached to their temporal, and too little attentive to their spiritual concerns, on the instant it shall be known that the bishops have applied to the king, in order that a revision under his royal authority might be committed to them and others to prepare! The salutary work has been too long delayed, considered both in a religious and civil light.'

Though we have given the full force of the author's reasoning, and though we may be styled as in the words following the passage we have transcribed, 'flimsy politicians,' we must still add, that we think the attempt would be inexpedient, and perhaps, even for the purposes which the author has in view, insufficient. We ground our opinion on the frequent experience which, in our professional capacity as Reviewers, we have of the petulance and captiousness of polemics. While they cavil at a sentence, the change of every part, if a word be left, will often not content them; and while the church of England retains any part of its peculiar doctrines, many of the dissentients would complain. It should be considered on the other hand, that Dissenters are of different and opposite opinions: they are now divided into Methodists, the remains of rigid Calvinists, on the one side, and Arians and Socinians on the other. What is granted to one will disgust the other; and while the more moderate of either description now join the church from habitual respect and veneration, if the form be changed, even the great objects of the association will be no longer answered. If the question be taken up in a more general view, and in this we should choose to consider it, viz. as the triumph of reason and true religion without the slightest regard to sectaries of any denomination, we fear that many, with the loss of the form, would be apprehensive that the substance would have suffered. If revisions had been more frequent, and conducted with prudence and steadiness, these apprehensions would have no force; but what has not for a long time been changed, the weaker minds will readily look on as unchangeable. We pretend not to say that these reasons are decisive; and we are aware that they rest on a very disputable and insufficient foundation, that men of judgment should sacrifice well-founded opinions in compliance with the prejudices of those who are not capable of forming any opinions of their

their own. But in this view of the question, we are only speaking of the probable effects of an alteration in the Common Prayer, as they may affect the design of the author of the Hints before us, and of the expediency of the attempt in general. We cannot pursue the subject farther at present, and we suspect that it will not be farther pursued by those who must take the lead in the change. We sincerely wish our author and the Association success in their exemplary attempts.

Observations on Mr. Paley's Theory of the Origin of Civil Government, and the Duty of Submission. 8vo. 2s. Thornton.

WE have seldom seen more animated and more energetic language in any similar work, nor is our author's acuteness inferior to his spirit, or his knowledge to his force. While Mr. Paley's morality was generally admired, his politics have been received with coldness and disapprobation. It is his business to defend all his tenets: it is our's to give some account of our author's work, and to say a little in the defence of what we have, on the whole, commended, and what we think still unimpeached.

We do not omit the introduction because we do not approve of it, for we are no friends of absolute and unconditional submission, though in pursuit of liberty we are not willing to fix her basis on an insecure position. We shall, therefore, at once, come to Mr. Paley's first principle, which our author combats. The archdeacon has said, that all government was originally patriarchal or military: our author denies that any legitimate species of government can possibly be derived from the exercise or possession of either, without the sanction and suffrage of those who stipulated to obey. We might at first observe, that the one asserts what was; the other what is lawful. The earliest form of government on record is patriarchal, for the father who supports and nourishes the child in his infancy retains some authority in riper years; but this authority is voluntary in the child, when grown up, as our author alledges. It may, however, be answered, that it really existed, and must continue to exist while the rights of mankind are neither examined or decided. The same may be said of the military leader: he too, retained power, which, whether tacitly or voluntarily allowed, or not examined, afforded the foundation for other more important claims, and was the foundation of future usurpations. We can agree with our author, that monarchy not founded on the social compact is an usurpation; but not that the social compact is originally and primarily necessary: a future acquiescence, even if it be from a wish of bearing the ills

we have, rather than flying to others which we know not of, is sufficient to excuse monarchy from the imputation we have mentioned. In the late instances in France, we can scarcely suppose that the present king is the person whom they would have chosen; but as they can now regulate the degree of power to be allotted, they acquiesce in the determination of hereditary right.

This is not altogether different from our author's opinions, and it is strictly consonant with those of Mr. Paley; for it is not alleged that it was the will of God that monarchy should exist, in consequence of the extension of the military and patriarchal powers. Monarchy is indeed permitted as well as many other circumstances which may be styled evils, and that monarchy is derived from the necessary claims of seniority, or the accidental elevation to military commands; yet the hypothesis founded on these positions does not deserve the severe treatment it has received.

‘We must therefore pursue the farther expansion of the patriarchal and military powers as they operated in conjunction, before we can derive from them the actual establishment of a system of civil government. We must behold the victorious chieftain dignified with the honours of ancestry, and crowned with the splendour of success, assume the command of his tribe, and assert an almost absolute dominion. We must behold him invested with this plenitude of power, acquired and maintained by the obvious and innocent arts of corrupting those who were capable of corruption, and of removing those who had virtue to resist, by the simple operation of poison or the sword. And after this edifying spectacle we may at length attain the object of our enquiry—We may behold the degraded slave obey his imperious lord, with patience that declines to resist, and with submission that dares not murmur.

‘Such is the destructive progress we are compelled to trace in support of Mr. Paley's theory, and having so traced it, these are the questions we may now be induced to ask—Can it be the will of God that men should submit to a government founded on fraud and supported by atrocity? Or is it a moral obligation to yield to a dominion constructed on the wreck of every duty of morality? Can it be conducive to our comfort, or expedient, from our situation, to escape the wild inconveniences of anarchy by embracing the steady miseries of despotism? Or is it possible that protection should be derived from oppression; or that security should result from violation.’

Our author then examines the state of different nations; and finds that the Scythians and Arabians were free when they opposed Cyrus and Pompey, and supported the power of the crescent. This is not quite a fair argument: it proves only that prosperity

prosperity is not wholly incompatible with an union of distinct tribes: it does not prove that monarchy was not founded on the authority of ancestry or military power. Monarchy is a plant (a weed if the term is preferred) which does not grow in every soil with equal luxuriance, and these tribes at this period were approaching only to civilization: besides they are unfair instances in another view, for regular subordination is incompatible with wandering families or migrating hordes. The Scythians in Germany, France, or other places, as soon as they were stationary, had kings; but their kingdoms were small and their subjects few, for their monarchy still retained a patriarchal form: no one will deny that monarchy prevailed in each district of the Saxon heptarchy.

‘If it be asserted, that an express compact between the primitive founders of the state, was never made or entered into in reality—we are prepared with an inquiry which may operate as an answer to the assertion—If we deny the existence of a compact, upon what physical or political principle can we account for the introduction of popular importance into the system of absolute government? From what endowment of the human heart, from what exertion of disinterested policy, can we derive the preservation of the dignity, the honour, and the safety of the multitude, as opposed to the ambition, the vanity, and the independence of the prince? Were the people indulged with a gift, when they dared not assert a right; or, was the slave condemned to emancipation, and invested with a privilege which he neither valued nor understood?’

We think these arguments of less consequence, as popular importance usually grows out of advancement in civilization and in riches. It was not inherent originally in any monarchy except those which emerged from the woods of Germany, where various circumstances gave a peculiar hue to the political complexion. The arguments which follow are not, in our opinion, more convincing. If a social compact did ever exist, it is a little surprising that no direct instance of it should have occurred in the history of mankind: our author has, in part, accounted for this, and explained many circumstances which seem to approach towards it.

Mr. Paley's objections to the existence of a social compact are next adduced and answered, sometimes successfully; but many arguments remain which effectually oppose it, unless under the limitations which we have already stated. The ground of the subjects obligation, which, according to Mr. Paley, is ‘the will of God collected from expediency,’ is then the object of our author's animadversions; and we must allow that the term ‘civil society,’ is too vague, and seems to have been

adopted to save a phrase more disagreeable. Perhaps, however, it may have been accidental; for the archdeacon could not expect so fiery an ordeal.

On the whole, while we give the author full credit for his abilities, we do not think that he has supported his position to the extent which he designed and wished. If Mr. Paley is in some parts vulnerable, it is not in all his objections to the social compact, or in his supposed origin of monarchy. This famous compact is, in our opinion, a visionary hypothesis, though supported by Mr. Locke, to whom we would implicitly resign our opinions, if we resigned them implicitly to any man who has yet existed, since every additional step in metaphysics shows still more clearly the extent of his discernment and the soundness of his judgment. If our author's spirit fails when supporting Mr. Locke's opinion, the cause must be hopeless.

T. Livii Patavini Singularum, quæ supersunt, Decadum Liber Prior ex Editione Drakenborchii cum Notis ejusdem selectis. 8vo. 7s. 6d. in Boards. No Publisher's name.

SCHELLER has observed, says the editor, that the most copious and best edition of Livy is that of Drakenborchius, in seven volumes quarto; in which he has joined the notes of the former editors and other commentators with his own. Besides the criticisms of Sigonius and the Gronovii, the 'notes of Perizonius and Dukerus are very acute and judicious: to which may be added the supplements of Freinsham. This edition, because its price was too great, is published by Ernestus without the notes or the supplement, but to compensate for that defect he has added a glossary.' I wish, however, adds Scheller, 'that any one would abridge the notes of the Gronovii, of Perizonius, Dukerus, and Drakenborchius, that they might be more generally useful.' (p. 759.)

With this view, the editor has resolved to publish the first book of every entire Decad, with almost all the notes that are particularly useful in illustrating the various readings, or in preserving the purity of the text. A few, which were intimately connected with the subjects of criticism or chronology, and could not be abridged without injuring the sense, are added at the end of each book. The books contained in this specimen are the first, the twenty-first, and the thirty-first: The two former are preferred, because they are most commonly read in the academical studies; and the thirty-first is subjoined because the most valuable edition (*editio princeps*), which is preserved in the public library at Cambridge, contains only three Decads. The orthography is that of Drakenborchius, and

and the marginal notes of Crevier, though omitted by that editor, are added, since 'they are pleasing and useful to the less learned readers.' The editor has prefixed the account of the manuscripts of Livy employed in this edition; a catalogue of the different editions which have been published of this historian; Facciolatus' epistle on the patavinity of Livy; the chronology of Sigonius connected with Livy's history; dissertation on the weights, money, and measures occasionally mentioned in the Decads, with an appendix on the æs grave, which occasionally occurs after the diminution of the weight of the assis; and some information on the interest of money and usury among the Romans. The last is taken from Brotier's quarto edition of Tacitus; the others which follow the chronology from Crevier's edition of Livy, published at Paris in six volumes 4to. Besides these useful essays, our author has prefixed the fragment of the ninety-first book of Livy, lately discovered and published at first separately by Bruno, afterwards by Brotier in his edition of Tacitus, which appeared at Amsterdam in duodecimo. A copious index is subjoined, which relates chiefly to the notes.

From the account which we have given, often in the words of the editor, it will be evident that this must be a very useful compilation, and it contains many essays as well as much information, which must be otherwise sought after in many different works. As the various parts of which it consists have been long known, it will be superfluous to examine it, and useless to transcribe any thing from the dissertations and notes. The fragment of Livy may not perhaps be so familiar. We shall give a short account of the argument, and add a specimen, from which our readers will judge of the state of the manuscript and its numerous imperfections.

Contrebia* stormed by Sertorius. That general having led his army into winter-quarters, calls a council of the allies, and recommends to them the continuance of the war. In the beginning of the spring, he sends M. Perpenna to the nation of the Ilurcaones (at present the southern part of Catalonia, and the northern part of the kingdom of Valentia). He informs Herennuleius and Hertulcius in what manner the war was to be carried on. He himself goes to Calaguris Nafica, a city of the allies (Calahorra in Old Castile). He sends M. Masius to the Arvaci and Cerindones (nations near the eastern part of Old Castile); C. Instelus to Segovia, and the nation of the Vacrei†. Then going through the territory of

* *Santa Vert in la Mancha.*

† Part of Old Castile and the kingdom of Leon, where Pallentia, Valladolid, and Simancas are now situated.

the Umcones (the south eastern part of Navarre), he arrived at Vareia (Logróno in Navarre), a very strong city.

These events happened

A. U. C. Before Christ.

DCLXXVIII.	76 years	Cneio Octavio Caio Scribonio Curone	} Consuls.
DCLXXIX.	75 years	Lucio Octavio Caio Aurelio Cotta	

We shall select Sertorius' advice to Herennuleius and Hertuleius :

‘Eodem tempore & ad Herennuleium, qui in iisdem locis erat litteras misit, & in alteram provinciam ad L. Hertuleium, precipiens, quemadmodum bellum administrare vellet ; ante omnia ut ita socias civitates tueretur, ne acie cum Metello demicaret, cui neque auctoritate neque viribus par esset : ne ipse quidem consilium inierat adversus eum cundi, neque in præsentiarum incursurum eum credebat, si traheretur bellum : hosti, cum mare ab tergo provinciasque omnes in potestate haberet, navibus undique commeatus venturos : ipsi autem, consumptis priore ætate, quæ præparata fuissent, omnium rerum inopiam fore : Perpernam in maritimam regionem superventurum, ut ea, quæ integra adhuc, ab hostis vi tutari posset, & si qua occasio detur, incautos per tempus aggressurum. Ipse cum suo exercitu Hiberones & Autalcones progredi statuit, a quibus gratiam querebatur infamem : cum nuper oppugnaretur Celtiberorum urber imploratam esse opem ab Metello, missisque qui itinera exercitui Romano monstrarent. Quam perfidiam ultum iri volebat Sertorius, ut insigni exemplo ceterorum fidem retineret. Illos cum pro flagitii gravitate multasset, variis distrabatur curis, ambiguus quonam bellum vertat, utrum fidos Romanis populos incurses, maritimamne oram, ut Pompeium ab Illecaonia & Contestania arceat, utràque sociâ gentem, an ad Metellum & Lusitaniam se convertat.’

Let us extract the same passage as it appears in the manuscript

‘EODEMTEMPORE ET
ADHERENNULEIUM
QUI IN ISDEM LOCIS
ERAT LITTERAS MISIT
ET IN ALTERAM PROVIN
CIAM AD L. HERTULEIUM
PRÆCIPIENTES QUOMODUM
MODUM BELLI
ADMINISTRARE VELLET ANTE
OMNIA UT ITA SOCIAS
CIVITATES TUE-
RETUR NE ACIE CUM
METELLO DEMICARET
CUI NEQUE AUCTORI-
TATE NEQUE VIRIBUS
PAR ESSET

SET NE IPSE QUIDEM
CONSILIVM
. . . VERSVS
NEQUE IN
SUVMEVM CREDEBAT
SITRAHERETVR BELLY
HOSTICVM MARE ABTER
OOPROVINCIAS QUOMNES
IN POTESTATE HABERET
NAVIBVS VNDIQ COM
MEATVS VENTVROS IPSI
AVTEM CONSUMPTIS PRIOR
RE ABESTATE QUAE PRÆPAR
ATA FUissent OMNIV

Letters of the late Thomas Rundle, LL. D. Lord Bishop of Derry in Ireland, to Mrs. Barbara Sandys, of Miserden, Gloucestershire. With Introductory Memoirs by James Dallaway, M. A. Two Volumes. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Cadell.

In his friends' happiness he was the warmest sharer; and in their misfortunes felt severely: of their interests he was anxiously mindful; and in his good offices for their services he was unremittingly diligent. If it were not too strong an expression, we might say he was a part of their constitution: at each impulse on their nerves his own seemed to vibrate.

P 3

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ing the bishoprick of Gloucester; and Dr. Gibson, the bishop of London, with an intolerance which would have disgraced the blindest sectary, not only reverted to his connection with Whiston, but was influenced by a vague story of something said, many years before, disrespectfully of Abraham's faith in offering up his son Isaac. These tales did not, however, prevent his obtaining the bishoprick of Derry, where he soon conquered the prejudices entertained against him, and lived highly respected by all parties. Dr. Rundle owed his preferment to Dr. Talbot, the bishop of Durham, as well as to his brother earl Talbot, the lord chancellor; and with this family he lived in the strictest friendship, without having his interest or his affection engaged by any nearer relatives of his own.

We shall extract a few passages from these volumes, which are characteristic of Dr. Rundle, or curious in themselves. Let us attend first to almost his last words: the closing of a well spent life is an interesting and an awful scene. We look up to the pious dying Christian, as being of a superior nature, quitting the heavy clog of mortality.

‘ To Archdeacon S.

‘ Dear Sir,

Dublin, March 22, 1742-3.

‘ Adieu—for ever.—Perhaps I may be alive when this comes to your hands—more probably not;—but in either condition your sincere well-wisher.—Believe me, my friend, there is no comfort in this world, but a life of virtue and piety; and no death supportable, but one comforted by Christianity, and its real and rational hope. The first, I doubt not, you experience daily—May it be long before you experience the second!—I have lived to be *Conviva futuræ*,—*passed through good report and evil report*;—have not been injured more than outwardly by the last, and solidly benefitted by the former. May all who love the truth in Christ Jesus, and sincerely obey the gospel, be happy! For they deserve to be so, who (Ἀλλοθιῶν Ἀμαρτῶν) seek truth in the spirit of love.

‘ Adieu!—I have no more strength.—My affectionate last adieu to your lady.

T. DERRY.’

The Letters to Mrs. Sandys were written at different periods, from the year 1718 to 1737. They consist of circumstances relating to his patrons family, the little gossipings of well-bred and well-informed persons, with some literary remarks of a superior kind. The first part, which appeared to us most interesting, was the observations on Mandeville's doctrine in the fable of the bees. It is a masterly sketch of an able answer to a very pernicious system. In the literary line also, we perceive a pleasing account of the disturbances which occurred on ‘Polly's’ being forbidden to be acted. It is well known that Polly was the work of Gay, designed as a sequel

to

to the Beggar's Opera : ' it is written (says Dr. Rundle) with spirit and satire ; the wit is new, the humour gay, and the reflections pointed at high life.' The duchess of Queensbury urged their majesties to subscribe, after its representation had been prevented ; for this indecorum she was forbidden the court ; but she lived to see it acted in 1777 at the Haymarket,

These Letters may, perhaps, inform some readers, and remind others, of the shocking state of the prisons of that era, when the exaggerated horrors of the transportation of the Africans to our West-India colonies were almost realised in this land of boasted liberty. Mr. Ogelthorpe, the Howard of his day, rescued the debtors and the felons from this wretched state, which might have sufficed as a punishment for the worst of crimes.

Of Dr. Clarke our author speaks with the warmest encomiums ; and of Thomson with the highest admiration, tempered with a correct judgment : let us extract some passages relating to the poet of the Seasons :

' To Mrs, Sandys.

' Madam,

July 16, 1730,

' I have presumed to send you a present of Mr. Thompson's Seasons ; a volume on which reason bestows as many beauties as imagination. It is a subject that our first parents would have sung in paradise, had they never been seduced by the serene flattery of false knowledge to forsake humility and innocence. But they would scarcely have excited by what they sung, a purer praise of virtue or higher raptures of adoration, than will warm your heart when you read the description of these rural scenes of the graces and benevolence of nature. Such writings give dignity to leisure, and exalt entertainment and amusements into devotion. If I praise the performance more than it deserves, consider it as an honest art of giving value to my present : for I would not willingly offer any thing to you of which I had not an high esteem.'

* * * *

' His present story is the death of Agamemnon. An adulteress, who murders her husband, is but an odd example to be presented before, and admonish the beauties of Great Britain, However, if he will be advised, it shall not be a shocking, though it cannot be a noble story. He will enrich it with a profusion of worthy sentiments and high poetry, but it will be written in a rough, harsh style, and in numbers great, but careless. He wants that neatness and simplicity of diction which is so natural in dialogue. He cannot throw the light of an elegant ease on his thoughts, which will make the sublimest turns of art appear the genuine unpremeditated dictates of the heart

of the speaker. But with all his faults, he will have a thousand masterly strokes of a great genius seen in all he writes. And he will be applauded by those who most censure him.'

Of the author of Leonidas he says :

'He seems to be inspired rather by reason than fancy ; and if he hath any thing wanting in the performance, it is the agreeable wildness of a young imagination, in whom extravagance and whimsies are pleasing, because beautiful. One's judgment and virtue are oftener approving the good-sense and worthiness of sentiment, than one's fancy transported by the magic of poetry and its gay creation.'

Of the family in which he lived, and of the bishop in particular, he scarcely speaks without rising almost to enthusiasm : it is a pleasing picture of the warmth of his affections and the goodness of his heart.—'I would not live any longer (says he) in one place, than I could get opportunities to show my gratitude to that family, to which I owe all the happiness and dignity of my life' The seventeenth letter, on the death of bishop Talbot, is extremely interesting and affecting :

'I have lost, I have lost my patron, friend, father ! To him I owe all the happiness I have ever enjoyed in life, all the comfort (if life hath any future comfort for me !) that I am still to receive, flow from his bounty to me ! I saw him in misery who never before was beheld by any that depended on him, but with gratitude and pleasure : to look on him who loved us all, was a joy that made us relish the good fortune, with which he had blest us. What can I do to show my sense of gratitude to him ! The labour of my life, the ambition of my life, shall be to enjoy the satisfaction of acting with a regard and love to his dear dear memory.'

We own that we have been much pleased with this work, and we have strongly shown it by the attention which we have paid it. To examine the truly genuine effusions of a good mind, to see its most familiar and careless traits, without finding them sullied by a blot which could detract from the character of a man and a Christian, must add to our respect for the dignity of human nature, and our veneration for that religion which could alone inspire and uniformly support a character of this superior kind.

The Works of the late John Gregory, M. D. To which is prefixed an Account of the Life of the Author. 4 Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Cadell.

THE eagerness of the admirers of the late Dr. Gregory was scarcely satisfied with the little posthumous tract, entitled *a Father's Last Legacy to his Daughters*. Without detracting from

from its merit, the size was unequal to the public expectations and the public wishes: they looked farther, and the present edition, which shuts out future prospects, must be regarded with a melancholy pleasure. The Life of Dr. Gregory, and the short account of his ancestors, will gratify perhaps curiosity, but will be considered as too short by those who admired him, who looked up to him for instruction, for countenance, and for protection. Dr. Gregory's professional merit was the least ornament of his character. His amiable manners; his cheerful, instructive conversation; his readiness to assist the student in the paths of science; to clear from them the different obstacles; and to animate him in overleaping what could not be removed, endeared him to the whole university. There was but one expression in the face of his pupils when his death was announced, and it was deep heart-felt sorrow, which admitted not of complaint.

The life of Dr. Gregory consists in a great degree of the history of his family, who were chiefly distinguished for their mathematical acquisitions, and our author was the sixth of his family who collaterally, or in succession, had obtained a professorship in a British university. With respect to himself, we meet with little which the world has not already been told; for few events distinguish the life of a literary man, of a man who spent the first part of it in a remote corner of the island, who for a short time appeared in its metropolis, and whose highest reputation was obtained in a distant city, that can only boast of having been once the metropolis of the northern kingdom. The best part of this life consists in an analysis of our author's works. His first publication, 'A Comparative View of the State and Faculties of Man, compared with those of the Animal World,' or perhaps more strictly—An Enquiry how far the boasted Distinctions of Mankind have really contributed to their Happiness, is well abridged. It is a work which does not perhaps enlarge the bounds of science; but from its philosophical precision, and the admirable remarks scattered through it, teaches us more clearly what our condition is; how we ought to regulate ourselves under it, and how to avoid the inconveniences necessarily attendant on our nature. It was on its first publication, in 1764, an object of our very particular attention: it occurs in our XXth volume, p. 161.

The next attempt was a masterly delineation of the Duties and Qualifications of a Physician, where he points out what a physician should be, and how far he may comply with the follies, the fancies, the caprices, and fashions of the world. He shows that the physician should possess learning; deep professional knowledge; clear comprehensive views; steadiness; coolness;

ness; tenderness; humanity. It is a work which cannot be read too often by those who, despising the lucrative trade, look up to it as the noblest of professions :

‘ The last three lectures relate chiefly to medicine, considered as a branch of natural knowledge ; and they will probably be regarded by the more intelligent of his readers as the most valuable part of the volume. They display more fully than any of the author’s other works, the extent of his philosophical views ; and it is perhaps from them that we are best enabled to form a judgment of the loss which the science of medicine sustained by his death. It is indeed impossible to read them without feeling a lively regret that his benevolent and enlightened exertions for its advancement were so early interrupted.

‘ It has been remarked, and perhaps not altogether without reason, that too much stress has been laid by some metaphysical writers on the method of philosophising ; and that those who have employed themselves the most in studying its rules, as they are laid down by lord Bacon, have seldom contributed much to the improvement of natural knowledge. Of those who have distinguished themselves lately in physics and chemistry, it is certain that by far the greater number have copied their plan of inquiry rather from the *Principia* and the *Optics* of sir Isaac Newton, than from the general speculations in the *Novum Organon*. The truth is, that, in physics and chemistry, the rules of investigation are very few and simple ; and although it was long before they occurred to philosophers, yet, when they have once been exemplified by a few good models, they recommend themselves so naturally to the common sense of mankind, that it remains a great wonder how the world should have been for so many ages imposed on by theories which rested on mere conjecture. Lord Bacon had undoubtedly the merit of first stating these rules fully and explicitly ; but now, when they have been so happily applied to their practical use by Newton and his followers, it may perhaps be found more easy to convey a distinct idea of them to students by particular examples, than by general illustrations. Although, however, all this should be granted with respect to physics and chemistry, it will not apply to the science of medicine, which has many difficulties peculiar to itself ; and which, besides the rules of investigation common to it with all the branches of natural knowledge, requires a variety of others, founded on the particular nature of the subjects about which it is conversant, and adapted to the present state of the medical art. Some of these rules are hinted at by lord Bacon, who, though no physician, possessed (in the judgment of Dr. Gregory) “ as just and comprehensive views in medicine as any physician who ever wrote,” but who, at the same time, to do complete justice to the subject, required a more extensive and accurate knowledge of medical facts, and of the history of the science, than could be expected from one who was not educated to physic as a profession.

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The remarks and illustrations, accordingly, of Dr. Gregory, not only form a very valuable commentary on some of Bacon's principles, but suggest a variety of original and important hints to medical inquirers. The wild and visionary systems which some of these have lately offered to the world, and which are too apt to intoxicate young and inexperienced minds, are a sufficient proof, that, however generally the true method of investigation may be understood or adopted in some other branches of science, an illustration of it, adapted to the perusal of speculative physicians, was by no means superfluous.*

His *Elements of the Practice of Physic*, which soon followed the genuine edition of the *Duties and Qualifications of a Physician* (for the first edition was a spurious and incorrect one), are chiefly designed as a syllabus. But though an outline, it is complete so far as it reached, for it is terminated, like the author's life, by the gout. Dr. Gregory points out the imperfections of his art, and seems anxious to lead the student to remedy these imperfections. The directions are clear, simple, and practical. The author appears the minister naturæ, carefully waiting for her dictates, and attentively following her steps. Let no one despise these cautions, who never saw what Gregory has done under their guidance: if he is afraid of what errors nature may sometimes commit, he will have reason to admire what she often effects beyond his hopes, his expectations, and his comprehension. The last work we have already mentioned, and it occurs in our XXXVIIIth volume: it is the first in this edition: and the *Comparative View*; the *Lectures on the Duties and Qualifications*; with the *Syllabus*, follow in their order.

Such is the substance of the present edition: the outline of the *Life*, we have observed, offers very little that is new. After obtaining the professorship at Aberdeen, Dr. Gregory removed to Edinburgh, and giving alternate lectures on the theory and practice of physic with Dr. Cullen, afforded opportunities to the student which they could not again experience. These professors were in some degree contrasted: they were like the rivals at Halle, where each drew out to view the merits of the other. If Dr. Gregory resembled the cautious, the sagacious Hoffmann; his colleague was like Stahl, original, enterprising, and extensive in his views and their application. Our author's death was sudden: it followed a three-years freedom from gout; not without suspicion, that by the free use of aromatics, he endeavoured to support that tone in the stomach which on the first approach of the fit is usually lost. We know that he thought the fits might by this means be protracted.

* Dr. Gregory, in person, was considerably above the middle size. His frame of body was compacted with symmetry, but

but not with elegance. His limbs were not active; he stooped somewhat in his gait; and his countenance, from a fullness of feature, and a heaviness of eye, gave no external indication of superior power of mind or abilities. It was otherwise when engaged in conversation. His features then became animated, and his eye most expressive. He had a warmth of tone and of gesture which gave a pleasing interest to every thing which he uttered: but, united with this animation, there was in him a gentleness and simplicity of manner, which, with little attention to the exterior and regulated forms of politeness, was more engaging than the most finished address. His conversation flowed with ease; and, when in company with literary men, without affecting a display of knowledge, he was liberal of the stores of his mind.'

His mind was acute, clear, and comprehensive. His varied stores of knowledge were arranged with skill, and produced with readiness. His conversation was free, animated, entertaining, and instructive: while eager to impress his opinions, or anxious to explain his doctrines, his features assumed that benevolent and anxious cast, that every thing seemed to 'come mended from his tongue.' His dialect was not pure, but his conversation was not on that account unpleasing.

Perhaps his mind was amiable rather than great: what he saw, he perceived clearly, with all its connections and dependencies, and taught it with force and ability. He seemed however timid, when he had reached these limits. Fearful probably of the dangers of conjecture, he seldom dared to indulge them; and appeared to think that 'the extravagant and erring spirit' might lead to the most pernicious consequences. Yet in the cause of virtue and religion he had no fears; in the views of philanthropy and friendship he had no apprehensions. We must now leave these volumes, with our most earnest recommendations: we have enlarged this little sketch, perhaps beyond its bounds; but the pen easily runs away with the judgment, when the subject is an interesting and a favourite one: such is the late Dr. Gregory to every person interested in the cause of virtue and philosophy.

Accounts and Extracts of the Manuscripts in the Library of the King of France. Published under the Inspection of a Committee of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. in Boards. Faulder.

IN these two volumes, we find the contents of the first quarto volume published at Paris in 1787, of a work designed to explain the substance of the various manuscripts of the French king's library, that philologists may not only know where
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the different materials may be found, that those who are not even acquainted with the language may derive some information respecting the contents. The preface, which we apprehend is the work of M. Dacier, secretary of the Academy of Belles Lettres, explains in a few words the history and the object of this establishment. The translation is executed with singular force and correctness: indeed, except some idiomatical turns of phraseology, and a few errors in particular words, we find no room for criticism.

‘The golden æra of science and letters is not yet passed; the king knows how much these can contribute to his glory and that of the nation, and the minister of the academies, with as much knowledge as zeal, second the beneficent intentions of his royal master, in perpetuating these happy days; thus exciting an ardour for labour, by powerful encouragements, directed to the public welfare.

‘A new establishment had just procured to the observatory, books, instruments, and a fund sufficient to secure unremitted instruction, and constant astronomical observations; when government raised the foundation of another institution not less important; the design of which is, to revive the study of the learned languages and historic records; to discover to France the riches she possesses and is ignorant of; to point out to her the use of them, and to make all Europe participate of whatever can assist history and literature in the immense and valuable collection of manuscripts in the king's library. And the Royal Academy of Belles Lettres, to whom this work has been intrusted, has considered it as the most signal favour received from royal munificence, since the administrations of Colbert and Pontchartrain.’

Eight academicians, of the Academy of Belles Lettres, were appointed for this purpose; and they were directed to explain, by exact accounts and judicious extracts, the substance of the manuscripts; and even to publish in their original languages those which they should think worthy of being printed. These accounts and extracts were to be read, not only to the academicians appointed for the purpose, but to the annual officers, the perpetual secretary, and four commissaries chosen by the academy.

It was necessary to enquire whether France afforded proper types for the works which might be selected for the press. M. de Guignes was appointed to this enquiry, and what a man of less genius might have accomplished by a few questions, he has extended into a very laboured and valuable essay on the typographical art, so far as it relates to Greek and the oriental languages. It is entitled ‘An Historical Essay on the Origin of the Oriental Characters of the Royal Printing Office; on the Works

Works which have been printed at Paris in the Arabic, Syriac, Armenian, and other Characters; and with the Grecian Types of Francis I. commonly called the King's Greek *.' Cheviller had said that the printer, Vitré, had destroyed the types, with which different oriental works had been printed, in the reign of Louis XIII: Didot, even in 1786, confirmed this testimony. It was true: the types were destroyed, and the treatment of Vitré, from the ministry of that period, might have justified his destroying them, if he had not reflected, that posterity would have suffered more than his enemies of the moment.

Though no types were found, various punches and matrices appeared: let us explain the terms. The punch is a piece of steel, on which the letter is engraved in strong relief; and its figure is stamped on a piece of copper, which forms the matrix or mould, for the fused metallic type. The punches and the matrices were the valued treasure for which he fought. They resembled exactly the characters of a Psalter printed at Rome, and were evidently the originals of the types employed in the time of Louis XIII. The question then was, whether they were the Roman matrices, or exact copies of them. After a pretty careful enquiry, it was found that M. Savari de Breves, who was ambassador from France to Constantinople, full of zeal for the propagation of Christianity in the Levant, the progress of science, and the advantages of commerce, procured many Arabian punches to be engraven at his own expence. On his return to France, in 1611, he was sent ambassador to Rome: he there printed, most probably with types formed from his eastern punches, the Catechism of Cardinal Bellarmine, in 1613; and the Psalter, just mentioned, in the following year. He returned to Paris in 1615; and in that year was printed at Paris, in the same characters, the treaty which he had concluded between Henry IV. and the sultan Amat. It was printed by Stephen Paulin, who must have been brought to France by M. de Breves, from whence he returned before 1620, unless we suppose that there were two Stephen Paulins, oriental printers at Rome and at Paris. In the interval of Paulin's stay, other printers probably learnt his art; for Sionita, Vitré, and other printers published works in Arabic and other oriental languages. M. de Breves died in 1627, and to prevent the types from falling into the hands of the Dutch and English, who were in treaty for them, Vitré was directed to buy them for the king. He was

* We perceive, on looking at the English version, that there is a little variety in the words of this title from that which occurs in the translation: it is inconsiderable, and we do not even pretend that this is more accurate. The fact was, that the original and translation lay before us, and we inadvertently copied from the former.

not however reimbursed for many years, and afterwards only in consequence of the clergy undertaking his cause, as the oriental works might assist the labours of the missionaries. After Vitré's death, in 1674, the characters were carried to the king's library, and in 1691 to the printing-house, where they have lain concealed for near a hundred years. They are now again brought to light, and their utility will probably soon appear.

We have followed this curious train of typographical history, without stopping to notice our author's reflections, or to add to them. It is not one of the least important considerations, that the crusades have done for us, what the conquests of Alexander had done for the Grecians: they have drawn us from our homes, from our own habits, languages, and customs. They have improved our knowledge of geography, history, medicine, and religion; for they have not only rendered us more accurate critics in the language of the Old Testament, but in the Syriac dialect, which gives a peculiar complexion to that of the New. The views of superstition, the zeal for making converts, and even the more rational and benevolent wish of rendering the knowledge of the gospel as extensive as its excellence is supreme, have contributed to extend our acquaintance with the oriental languages. In more modern times, the objects of commerce have been assisted by these former attempts, and the most universal passion, the love of gain, has, in its turn, favoured the progress of knowledge. We are, at this moment, at the eve of surveying the varied treasures of eastern literature; those recondite stores, where the human mind, unfettered by system, has wandered with wild enthusiasm; where history, unacquainted with European fictions, may have guided the pen with more fidelity; and where fancy, in a purer sky and more vivid scenes, has sparkled with a lustre which the colder pens in more northern climes have feared or been unable to copy. But we have not room to extend reflections of this kind: we may, we hope, be excused for having engaged in them, when the history of what has past combined so intimately with what we have reason to expect in future. We shall however return to M. de Guigne's Historical Essay.

The punches of the characters of Francis I. called the 'King's Greek,' were engraved by Garamont, and deposited by this monarch in the chamber of accounts; the matrices were left in the hands of Robert Stevens, who employed the types in his editions of the Greek classics, that he might supply those which were worn. The last of these printers sold them in Geneva; but they were redeemed by Louis XIII. and brought again to Paris. The punches and the matrices, though supposed to be lost, still remain:

‘The beauty and elegance of the characters of Francis I. which they commonly call in the printing-house the king’s Greek, were so well known to the learned of Europe, that, in 1700, the university of Cambridge desired to have some particular fonts of them: The trustees of the new printing-house at Cambridge addressed themselves to M. Clement, keeper of the king’s library, and requested a certain quantity of the Greek characters, offering to acknowledge the favour in a preface to the first book they should print, and to pay the value of them in books. They add, also, that they were not possessed of the secret of making a shining ink; that this art was in possession of a society, from whom the university bought it: but they promised to regulate it in such a manner, that the royal printing-house may be provided with such a quantity as they chose, on the same condition as the university purchase it.

‘M. Clement answered this letter, “That the university of Cambridge would find in France every good disposition it could desire, towards a friendly correspondence with the royal printing-house; in order to labour in concert, and to give reciprocally all the necessary helps to the advancement of learning. That they would willingly lend them all the fonts, entire and complete, of the characters of the king’s Greek; but on condition they should oblige themselves to mark their acknowledgments, not only in a preface, but also on the title page of every work for which these characters should be employed.

“It is then especially desired, that the university of Cambridge shall promise, that in every work which they shall print in their printing-house with the Greek characters they shall receive from France, they shall put at the bottom of the title page, after these words, *Typis Academicis*, some other words, which signify that these Greek characters have been borrowed from the royal printing-house at Paris. *Characteribus Græcis et typographæis regis Parisiæ*. As soon as they shall have agreed to this first condition, the others shall be no impediment; and it will be easy to fix the price of the quantity they wish to have of them, and the manner in which payment shall be made; since they are desirous, above all things, that this money shall be employed to purchase books to enrich the king’s library.”

The offer was not accepted, and the types were of course not employed. Besides these details, M. de Guignes gives a very accurate and interesting account of the progress of oriental literature in Europe; and explains the nature and the execution of the different works. He describes the characters, and the number of punches, &c. The Hebrew characters in the king’s printing-office, as well as the Chinese, are also spoken of with great minuteness: the last are only wooden blocks, and they must be used in the rolling-press. Of these there are said to be 80,000. We must now examine the catalogue of the manuscripts.

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The first, in the true oriental phraseology, is entitled, 'The Golden Meadows, and the Mines of Precious Stones; an universal History, by Aboul-Hassan-Aly, Son of Al-Khair, Son of Aly, Son of Abdarrhaman, &c. surnamed Masoudi; a Writer of the Twelfth Century.—Arabian Manuscripts, No. 598, in Quarto, of 274 Pages; No. 599, in Quarto, of 394 Pages; and No. 599, A. in Folio, of 984 Pages: all three on Oriental Paper.'

We have transcribed his title at length, as a specimen of M. de Guigne's manner, and shall give a short but connected account of what he has advanced. The manuscript contains an abridgment of universal history. Masoudi begins from the creation of the world, and treats of all the patriarchs down to Mahomet. He speaks very shortly of the Indians, Chinese, of the ancient kings of Chaldea, Babylon, Persia, Greece, Rome, and even of France; but in this account there are several geographical remarks. He then treats of the ancient Arabs, of their kings, of their religion, of the form of their years, as well as of the Syrian and Persian years, and of some ancient temples in different nations. The last part of his work is the history of the caliphs, down to about the middle of the tenth century. The plan is vast, and gives a favourable idea of the extent of the author's knowledge; but M. de Guignes properly observes, that if he speaks of every thing which he professes to treat of, it is in a very concise way; and often by relating some of the outlines, very frequently mixed, in the oriental style, with absurdities and fables. The history of the caliphs, which would be the most curious part; contains only some particular unconnected anecdotes. They should not be neglected by an author who wished to write the history of the caliphs, though not adapted to these 'Accounts,' because they would require too many tedious explanations to be understood. The account of this work is very considerable; and great attention is paid to what appears of most importance. The author, in giving us some information of ancient nations, furnishes us with proofs that the Arabians frequently went to China. In speaking of the people in the neighbourhood of the Caspian Sea, he tells us, that near the city of Backu there was a mine of transparent naphtha, and a volcano that threw out flames. The mine is still described by many travellers*; but the appearance of the old volcano only remains:

* There is no mention made of this volcano near the Caspian sea; but in the new history of Russia, by M. le Clerc, it is said that Caucasus, on that side, filled with metals, and combustible materials, emits in different places warm springs and sources of naphtha, of different qualities. There is to be seen native sulphur, or ore of vitriol; elsewhere lakes, which a subterraneous fire causes to bubble up in a sensible manner. From the foot of

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means: it has been long extinct; but our author informs us that there were many burning mountains in Arabia. When he speaks of the Romans, he tells us that Helena, after having found the true cross, expended considerable sums in building churches in Egypt, Syria, and Greece. For that which she erected at Emessa, she brought superb marble columns from Egypt. He tells us also, that on the Pharos of Alexandria there was a mirror, by means of which vessels at sea and transactions in the neighbouring islands were perceived. A quotation from a more modern author, Abulfeda, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, mentions these mirrors; so that, unless the latter copied the former, we must suppose that the Egyptians had made some improvements in catoptrics. The translator renders the word 'looking-glass;' but all the mirrors, we suspect, of that æra, were highly-polished metals. Our author too speaks of the excavations which different Arabian princes have made to penetrate to the interior parts of the pyramids of Egypt. It is probable, from his account, that some treasures were found in them; and that by their means the masters of that country were enabled to resist the powers of the caliphs of Bagdat. What he says of the æras, or epochs of different oriental nations, and the form of their years, is very curious; but it is not in our power to give even the outline. He points out the opinions of some of the oriental philosophers on the duration of the world; and has given an ample detail of the mensuration of the earth, by the order of the caliph Almamoun. This observation was made between Racca and Palmyra. The history of the caliphs is short, for the author refers to another work on the subject. We have formerly noticed, and employed it as an argument to account in part for their success, that the lives of the caliphs were abstemious, their appearance plain, and their whole conduct regular and exemplary. About the end of the ninth century they began to adorn their horses with trappings of gold, and then yielded themselves by degrees to the dominion of luxuries of every kind, resigning the cares of government to the ministers. By this conduct they soon became only pontiffs, received the greatest honours, while they lost all their power. A chronological table of the different caliphs, with the duration of their respective reigns, is subjoined.

The next account is the Journal of Burcard, master of the ceremonies of the pope's chapel, from Sixtus IV. to Julius II. in

of mount Caucasus, which immediately forms the western shore of the Caspian sea, spring two sources of naptha, which is very common in those countries. This bitumen flows from mountains, sometimes pure, and sometimes mixed with heterogeneous substances, and falls into that sea by subterraneous canals. Translator.

three

three parts, during the pontificates of Sixtus IV. Innocent VIII. Alexander VI. Pius III. and the three first years of Julius II. viz. from 1483 to May 1506. The proceedings of the conclaves on the death of Sixtus, when cardinal Malfi was elected pope, his coronation, what relates to rank and precedence among the princes, with various historical facts, and some of the minuter parts of history, are the subjects of Burcard's Journal. His description of his journey to Naples, in 1494, is particularly curious, and the accounts of some of the subsequent conclaves, as well as of the infamous transactions of Alexander, may deserve the attention of the writers of memoirs. This journal appears to have been written with singular candour and simplicity.

An account of a Greek Lexicon, by M. de Rochfort, follows; but the introduction is the most curious part of it. It is well known that the simplicity of Æsop's Fables was greatly corrupted by their first editor Planudes, of the fourteenth century: at the same time it has been asserted, and probably with truth, that the manuscript of Æsop of the thirteenth century, as well as earlier ones, exist. Our academicians were eager in his pursuit of a manuscript of this kind in the French king's library, which he had heard was in it. After some disappointments he discovered twelve fables of Æsop, dressed in Iambic verses, by Gabrias, or Babrias, or rather by the monk Ignatius, who had published them under the name of Gabrias. 'I consulted, adds he, the editions of that fabulist, and found all the fables in the manuscript except one. I observed only in these editions, either of Basil or of Oxford, some different *lessons* (readings, leçons), which were almost all better than in the manuscript.' Let us transcribe this remaining fable.

Ἄμῃς ἐκτρεῖς μὲν, ἔργον δ' οὐδ' ἀσπίδα,
εἰς χάλας βλάπτουσι ἵππασα γῆν,
ὁ μῦς δ' ἐν ζῶν. μετὸς ἵππων δακνύων.
ὡς οὐδὲ μὲν δύναιτο τέλει καὶ ἵπποι

'Here is a literal translation of this fable: *Mus exportabat murem evanidum fame, quos fabri ærarii videntes traxerunt risum; mus vero superstes, lacrymis refertus dixit: quid quidem non potuisti unum tantum ex nutrire.* The meaning is, a mouse was carrying out of its hole another mouse starved with hunger. Some smiths happening to see them, burst out into laughter, "You have great reason to laugh," answered the surviving mouse, melting into tears, "you that have not where withal to nourish one mouse."

If mice are the painters, how easy is it to retort an act of in-

* Why is the version so greatly disfigured by words of this kind, which occasionally occur?

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humanity?

humanity ? This appears to us to be the moral, and we think it by no means a bad one. The Greek is much more simple and laconic than the translation.

The title of the Lexicon was 'a collection of words from different books, both of the Old and New Testament, as well as from foreign, or ethnical works.' If translated more accurately, it will be found to be a collection of words from different works of the new, and occasionally of foreign dialects. This title too coincided with the bulk of the Lexicon, which was found to contain some Hebrew words, some Arabian and Syriac, and even some Phœnician ones, with their meaning in Greek. It seemed at first to have some resemblance to Suidas, but differed from that author's dictionary in many essential respects: the part in which this Lexicon appears most copious is in grammatical observations and etymologies: Suidas abounds in historical remarks. It resembles Suidas however in many parts, and Hesychius also in some respects. The simple etymologies would afford a great support to lord Monboddo's fanciful system. The work is seemingly of the thirteenth century, and probably a collection from some more ancient one, to which Suidas also had recourse.

'An Historical Chain of Countries, Seas, and Fishes, with a Treatise on the Science of the Sphere; a Collection of different Works, particularly of two Voyages to India and China, in the ninth and tenth Centuries.' This is the long sought after and disputed manuscript of the abbé Renaudot, who published in 1718, 'Ancient Relations of India and China.' The accounts are so unfavourable to China, that two missionaries denied some of the facts, and disbelieved the existence of the manuscript. It was found by the author of this 'Notice,' in 1764, and described in a letter to the editors of the *Journal de Sçavans*. One of the stumbling-blocks to the missionaries, we remember, was the assertion of the travellers, that in the markets of China they publicly sold human flesh. The fact is supported by a passage in the Chinese Annals, where it is said, that in the year 1240, men were killed, and their flesh was sold in the markets; so that every one was afraid of going abroad in the evening, for fear of being caught and killed for the same purpose. But the Annals of China are said to furnish many similar instances in the extreme exigences of famine. We have already observed, in this article, that the Arabians were frequent visitors to China, and adventurous sailors. One fact is singularly curious:

* In one place of these voyages a discovery that was then made is spoken of. In the Mediterranean, on the coasts of Syria, if we credit the author, they found the ruins of an Arabian vessel, the construction of which announced, that it was of Siph, in the Gulph of Persia. He observes, that there are no vessels,

vessels, but those of Siraph, whose planks are not nailed, but joined together in a particular way, as if they were sewed: such was that vessel; whereas those of the Mediterranean and of the coast of Syria are nailed. He infers from thence, that this vessel, built in the Gulph of Persia, and conducted into the Indian sea, might have been driven on the Oriental side by the sea. He supposes it to have made the round of China, whence it might have entered into the sea of Khozar; and thence, by a canal, into the Mediterranean. By this it appears that they believed the ocean communicated with the Mediterranean, which, this way, is absolutely false. But if it be true that the vessel departed from Siraph, it is more simple to suppose it to pass towards the west, by way of the Cape of Good Hope, along the western coasts of Africa, and to enter the Mediterranean by the Streight of Gibraltar. The Arabians were then great navigators; they frequented the islands which are to the south of India; they were curious in making discoveries, as we may see by other manuscripts; and I should not be surprised if those of Siraph had passed into the Atlantic, and then into the Mediterranean; where they might have been wrecked.'

We know not the size of this vessel; but if not nailed, it must have been small: why therefore may not the ship have been built in the Red-Sea, and carried by land over the short tract which divides Suez from the Nile? Or why might not some Arabians have built their peculiar sloops in the Mediterranean? A vessel without a nail could never, we think, have doubled the Cape.

The five next accounts relate to manuscripts of *Æschylus*. The first, No. 2789, contains the *Prometheus*, the *Seven Chiefs of Thebes*, and the *Persians*, entire. The *Life of Æschylus*, prefixed, is very nearly the same with that in M. Paw's edition, and is full of gross chronological contradictions. The errors in this manuscript show the ignorance of the copyist; yet it affords some important various readings. An index of the variations, both good and bad, is subjoined.

The second, No. 2790, contains the *Prometheus of Æschylus*, the *Ajax of Sophocles*, a *Treatise on Dialects*, a *Letter of the Pythagorean Lysis*, and a *Treatise on anomalous or irregular Verbs*. The last is a very trifling performance, in the author's opinion, and the *Treatise on Dialects*, supposed to be by Gregory, or George Pardus, of Corinth, is little better. The *Letter* and the *Treatise* have been published, the copy differs only in its errors from the printed works. The variations of the *Prometheus* are few only, though in general valuable. The *Ajax* is to be examined with the other manuscripts of *Sophocles*.

The third, No. 2782, is a manuscript of the sixteenth cen-
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tury, containing the Olympus (Olympics), of Pindar; a Treatise of the Greek Syntax; another of the fabulous Deities, rendered unintelligible by the errors of the copyist, a translation of some of the Psalms in Greek verse, the Prometheus, with the Seven Chiefs at Thebes, of Æschylus. Though the faults of the copies are numerous, there appear to be some good variations: may not the blundering transcriber have sometimes stumbled on a meaning?

The fourth, No. 2788, contains the same plays as the first; several of the variations occurred in that manuscript; but some others are also found in it.

The fifth, No. 2791, is a modern manuscript, written with a view of interlining the Interpretation, and adding marginal notes. The author of the 'Notice,' M. Vauvilliers thinks it is a fair copy of Casaubon, to which the notes were added, and those which the transcriber could not, from the accounts before him, attribute to any particular author, are called Casaubon's. The writing is often expressly said to be Casaubon's; but the notes are added, as if they were inserted by some one else; and there are notes which he could not claim. The manuscript is therefore supposed to be the work of Pithou, with great probability. Some account of the various readings and of the observations which the margins afford, are added.

A 'Notice' of an Autographical Chronicle of Bernard Ilarius, Librarian to the abbey of St. Martial of Limoges, in the thirteenth Century, by M. de Brequigny, follows. The volume contains two very different works, a Collection of Hymns or their Tunes, of the eleventh century; and a Treatise on Logic, of the twelfth century. The historical and chronological notes fill the margins of the two last leaves. By collecting them we obtain a chronicle extending from the creation of the world to A. D. 1297. This chronicle consists of three parts, the events which occurred in his own time, written by himself; the supplement for the time preceding; and the continuation, by his successors in the office of librarian.

The last 'Notice' in this volume is the Book of Councils, a Moral Poem, by the Scheik Ferideddin, Mohammed Ben Ibrahim Alattar Alnischabouri. It is contained in three Persian manuscripts, and the account is given by M. Sylvester de Sacy.

The author of the poem was a perfumer*, as his cognomen, alattar, signifies. When he quitted the world, and embraced a contemplative life, he passed many years in the exercises of devotion, and collected the history of the life and actions of a

* The Translator calls him twice a performer, and it is not noticed in the errata—The original word is *parfumeur*.

great number of holy dervises. He was supposed to have reached the highest degree of perfection, and to have penetrated farther into the hidden secrets of the spiritual world than any other person. He perished in the invasion of the Moguls, A. D. 1229, aged 714 years, and a chapel raised over his tomb was for many years the object of numerous pilgrims. He left various poems and prose works, but the most celebrated of the former is *Pendnameth*, the Book of Councils. The poet begins with celebrating the greatness of God, his omnipotence, and the miracles which he has wrought. He then sings the praises of Mahomet, and the most celebrated imans; of the marks of true piety; solid devotion; religious perfection; a renunciation of the good things of this world; of virtues and vices, as well as the signs by which they may be known. After these details, which are introduced without order, he addresses himself to his pupil, and his councils are repeated with a tediousness which must disgust, particularly from the peculiarity of the Persian verse, and the play on words, which the Persian poets seem to study. Though there is much superstition in these precepts, and an affectation of laboured refinement (spiritualism), we perceive often that he is the friend of humanity and virtue.

In one of these manuscripts, viz. No. 343, there is a life of Sadi, the Persian poet, and another work of Attar, entitled the 'Book of the Nightingale.' We think we perceive much fancy, and a strain of allegory in this little poem; but we have extended our article so far, that we have not room to transcribe the subject. We purpose to take up the second volume of the translation very soon.

The Works of Thomas Sydenham, M. D. on Acute and Chronic Diseases; wherein their Histories and Modes of Cure, as recited by him, are delivered. To which are subjoined Notes corrective and explanatory. With a Variety of Annotations by George Wallis, M. D. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. in Boards. Robinsons.

AS Dr. Swan's translation of Sydenham's works is become scarce, a new edition is undoubtedly necessary; and Dr. Wallis has preferred the former translation which he thinks is generally correct. The present edition, therefore, differs very little in the text from that which preceded it; but the notes, which we always considered as trifling and insignificant, are almost wholly new. The various improvements of late years, the nosological references, and the pharmaceutical remarks, are inserted and adapted to the latest attempts. In all these respects this work is greatly superior to the former one. If, however, it be asked whether it yet approaches to a state

which we should consider as perfect, we cannot reply in the affirmative. Though much trifling matter is omitted, many unnecessary circumstances remain: the errors of Sydenham are not always pointed out; the connection of his practice with that of the more modern physicians must often be supplied by the reader. If a young practitioner, with little other assistance than these volumes, should bleed, use violent emetics, and the drastic purgatives of Sydenham, he would soon find that the constitution of the fevers and his patients was very much changed. We think, indeed, that these volumes will compensate with advantage for the deficiency of Dr. Swan's translation; but we could have wished for a work of more importance, which, while it pointed out the character of Sydenham, should have given a clear systematic view of the present practice. Though such may have been our wishes, we ought not to impute to Dr. Wallis, as a fault, the omission of what made no part of his design.

Memoirs of the Countess de Valois de la Motte: Containing a Justification of her Conduct relative to the Diamond Necklace, also the Correspondence between the Queen of France and the Cardinal de Rohan. Translated from the French, written by Herself. 10s. 6d. sewed. Ridgway.

THIS detail of mysterious iniquity contains a series of political and amorous intrigues of the most unprincipled and disgusting nature. We fear, to the disgrace of humanity, that it contains too much truth. But implicitly to believe all the glaring improbabilities that are here advanced on the mere assertion of the fair author, requires more gallantry, or stronger faith, than we can boast of. Our scepticism is not founded merely on the nature of the facts reported; but the reporter confesses she has so frequently sacrificed her veracity, and been a partaker in the guilt she wishes to expose, that the whole narration has somewhat of the air of one party turning king's evidence before the tribunal of the public. This memorialist says, that she was the vehicle of the correspondence given in the Appendix; that she was accustomed to open the letters committed to her, and take copies of them. Thus our readers will perceive the nature of their authenticity.

The principal subject of these Memoirs is the famous diamond necklace; relative to which, the royal personage in question has denied having any knowledge or concern whatever. The following is the very different account which the writer

writer of these Memoirs gives of the matter.—She states that the queen talking about the purchase and of the cardinal, said,

“He is perhaps ignorant of it, but I tell it to you, that I have contracted with the king a formal engagement, not to set my name to any thing without first communicating it to him; the thing is therefore impracticable. See between you, what can be done, or let us give up the idea of a purchase.—It appears to me, that the writing being only a matter of form; that those people being unacquainted with my hand-writing—you will consider of it; but, once more, I cannot set my name to it. However, let the matter end which way it will, tell the cardinal, that the first time I see him, I will communicate the nature of those arrangements I mean to make with him.”

‘To draw as an inference from this conversation, that the queen should have advised me to commit a forgery, might seem a kind of sacrilege. Possibly she did not form a more exact idea of what the nature of a forgery was, than I myself did, before I was made sensible of the consequences; it is likewise possible, that the observation she made of the jewellers being unacquainted with her hand-writing, did not mean that another might be substituted in its stead; for, upon further reflection, I found it might have quite another meaning; though the fact is, that I then affixed that meaning to those expressions.

‘I did not dissemble when I took up my pen to commence these Memoirs. I confessed I had committed many imprudencies—this was one of the most grievous. I can scarce plead ignorance to assist me in my justification, though it was in fact the real principle of my fault. Unaccustomed to reflect, hurried away in the vortex of courtly compliance; plunged into that kind of delirium which the spirit of intrigue diffused in every thing about me; corrupted, in short, by the bad example incessantly before my eyes, and habituated to treat too lightly all that is connected with moral duties, I saw nothing more in such a transaction, than one of those ordinary impositions which people allow themselves in the world, when they are conscious within themselves, that in reality they mean no injurious deception. “In reality what matters it, (said I to myself) whether the jewellers see the queen’s writing or that of any other hand, since they are to see it but for an instant; that it will not remain in their hands, that it is immaterial to their security, since they have the cardinal’s bond, and that in case the cardinal should not be able exactly to make good his payments at the different instalments, the queen, who means to keep the affair a secret, would, of necessity, fulfil the private engagements which she assures me she will enter into with him.” Secretly arguing thus, and not arguing long, not being accustomed to very deep reflection: I determin’d, that for form’s sake, something must be shewn to the jewellers, which they might take for the queen’s approbation;

approbation ; that the cardinal must not be consulted about this measure, which he would perhaps think himself bound to reject, but which he would be pleased with me for putting in practice after it had produced its effect ; besides, (continuing my reverie) I am so much the less in danger of exposing myself, as, in fact, if the queen did not precisely suggest the idea of my signing her name, she left to my option the choice of the means.

This memorialist proceeds, and brings the splendid bauble, worth about sixty thousand pounds sterling, into the possession of her royal mistress, when it seems it was to undergo some small alteration, that it might not be noticed by the king. The following is the account this writer gives of the munificent present the queen made her, as she says, of some of the constituent parts of this magnificent jewel :

‘ From that period, to the time when the charge was made against me, of having purloined that unfortunate jewel, there gradually arose clouds which could not fail sensibly to alarm me. The appointments between the queen and the cardinal became less frequent—her majesty appeared gloomy, her temper was visibly soured, and I had much to suffer personally from that change of disposition. I saw clearly that she sought, without wishing to appear active, to punish me for the share I had in bringing her and the cardinal on a more intimate footing ; he seeming, daily to grow more insupportable to her : I have said, to punish—it is no exaggeration. She, no longer spoke to me of the cardinal, It was, no doubt, to practice those petty cruelties, till she could get rid of me, for I cannot question but she had already formed that idea, when she resumed that of undoing the cardinal. It was probably, I say, with both those views, that one day after bestowing on me some of her sweet looks ; she said, presenting me with a box, “ Here ; its a long while since I have given you any thing ; but don’t tell the Cardinal that I have made you this present, nor even that you have seen me ;—do you hear ? do not talk to him of me.”

An extraordinary mode of punishment ! The enemies of this lady say, that she, by some means, got possession of and sold the whole necklace. Her account is, that what the queen gave her, was not worth more (according to the cardinal’s estimation) than twelve thousand pounds sterling.—These *Memoirs* contain likewise a long detail of the *comte de la Motte’s* adventures in Great Britain, and of his negotiations with diamond-dealers of the metropolis.

Upon the whole, though this production may appear curious and interesting, owing to the dignity of the personages brought upon the carpet, viz. the emperor, the king, the queen,

queen, the cardinal, &c. a regard to truth obliges us to say, that we consider it as the history of an intriguing woman caught in her own wiles.

Thoughts on the Disqualification of the eldest Sons of the Peers of Scotland, to sit from that Country in Parliament. With Observations on the Civil Polity of the Kingdom. The second Edition. By Alexander Lord Saltoun, Advocate and F. S. S. A. 8vo. 4s. Cadell.

IN the parliaments of Scotland, which were put an end to by the union of the two kingdoms, the lords and commons formed but one house, consisting of one hundred and fifty-three peers, ninety commissioners from shires, and sixty-seven from burghs. The king had in that country no negative on the proceedings of parliament, previous to the accession of James the Sixth to the crown of England, when his increased dominion enabled him to extend his prerogative. In 1661 an act was passed in Scotland relative to the election of the representatives of the commons, confining the right of voting and of being elected to all freeholders of the king, to a certain extent, excepting always and excluding from this right all noblemen and their vassals. The author before us labours hard to prove, that it was not meant by this law to preclude the eldest sons of noblemen. However that be, it is certain that the Scottish parliament came to a resolution in 1685, and again in 1689, expressly declaring that the eldest sons of peers had no right to sit in parliament as representatives of any burgh or shire, obviously to counteract the great power and influence of some families in that country. Lord Saltoun attacks the justice and legality of these decisions. We shall only observe, that however unnecessary or unjust they might be, the parliament had certainly a legal power of forming such a regulation, even supposing it had never existed before.—But to go on. This question seems to have lain dormant, till it was again brought before the Scottish parliament on the occasion of the Union. A motion was then made, that no peer, or the eldest son of any peer, should sit for Scotland in the British house of commons. This motion was negatived, and another proposed and accepted, seemingly designed to evade the question, declaring the right of electing and being elected to represent Scotland in the British house of commons, should be in those only who were entitled to elect or be elected members of the Scottish parliament. This was likewise confirmed by the 5th Anne cap. 8.

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In 1708, after the union, two eldest sons of peers were returned from Scotland to sit in the British house of commons; but a petition was lodged against them, on the ground that they would not have been elected members of the Scottish parliament. They were accordingly declared ineligible to the British house of commons, as well as incapable of voting at elections. Thus the law has stood ever since, and many instances have occurred of new writs being issued out upon the event of members of our lower house having become eldest sons of peers of Scotland. The last instance, it seems, was that of lord Elcho in 1787, who vacated a district of Scotch burghs, in consequence of his father's succession to the peerage of Wemyss, which has given rise to the present publication. The author seems to be perfectly master of his subject, and we think he has succeeded in his attempt to show the hardship and absurdity of the eldest sons of Scottish peers being excluded at this time from representing in the house of commons any place in Scotland; though they may sit in that of England or Ireland as members for any county or borough in either of those kingdoms. We shall give the following short specimen of his lordship's reasoning, which is in his best manner:

‘Injured by a deprivation of those equalities, they (peer’s eldest sons) may incontestibly demand to be restored to their undoubted privilege and right. But not only are the eldest sons of the peers of Scotland injured in respect to those equalities, and that mutual participation of privileges provided by the fourth article of the Union to the inhabitants of both kingdoms; they are also marked out as a distinct and separate body of subjects, to whom alone the rights and privileges of Britons are refused. If they are charged with a crime, they are tried by commoners. They cannot even demand a jury composed of the eldest sons of peers, being in every respect, during the lives of their fathers, in the eye of law, commoners; for the British constitution knows no distinction of subjects between peers and commons. They are, at the same time, the only body of British subjects who, without either holding public offices or lying under any disqualifying sentence by statute, are positively incapacitated from electing or being elected to parliament from the place of their nativity; from that part of the united kingdom in which their property is situated, and with whose local interests they are best acquainted. The immediate heirs of great landed estates and parliamentary importance, and who may one day become members of the supreme judicatory of the empire, are in Scotland debarred from the best opportunities of acquiring a knowledge of the British constitution. In their native country, they are no more than spectators of the first and most valuable privileges of Britons. No legal possession of property to any extent, can entitle them to the rights of their fellow-citizens. There is

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no situation that can enable them to defeat or elude that political disqualification. while, in the course of fortuitous events, individuals, without being doomed to that act of injustice by their birth, may be subjected to it from succession.'

- Our neighbours on the continent are, it seems, at this time, busily engaged in agitating the grand question of representation. We most sincerely wish that the defect pointed out in this work was the only, or the principal one in the representation of these kingdoms. It is perhaps hardly worth while to pay so much attention to so comparatively trifling a blemish, when the sad effects of so much greater and more glaring ones have been so frequently experienced.

This author seems not to have followed any plan or system, in connecting or incorporating the materials of his work. They consist of the text, of a great number of notes on the text, of notes on the notes, and of an Appendix. A little labour and attention would certainly have enabled him to give to his production a greater degree of connexion and perspicuity.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

LET us pursue the subject from our last Number, and follow Meteorology where it may lead us. Father Cotte, to whom we were lately so greatly indebted, has given us a continuation of his observations on the variation-compass of M. Coulumb for the year 1788, with the general results of the observations from 1784 to 1788. This subject we have already noticed, and we are pleased to find that it is so much attended to, since it is not merely a speculative question. The diurnal variation of the five years is $4^{\circ} 17' 52''$; and this is the result of 14270 observations. Brander's variation-needle does not move freely, though mounted on a pivot of agate: it fixed very nearly at $21^{\circ} 38'$.

Our author's first table for 1788 contains the diurnal motion of the needle; and we find that the greatest variations towards the west, are from noon to three in the afternoon; and the least about seven or eight in the morning; that the greatest agitation of the needle is at eight o'clock in the morning. Towards the end of October and about the beginning of November, the needle turned pretty strongly towards the west, where it was almost stationary; it then approached the north; but it was greatly agitated through the whole month of November and December. The greatest variation in the year was in November, when it frequently amounted to $11^{\circ} 4'$: the least was in April, viz. $2^{\circ} 44'$. The next is a table of the mean diurnal variation of the magnetic needle for each hour, and each month of

of the years from 1784 to 1788 inclusive. From this table, it appears that the variation of the needle is uniform; that it deviates from the north to the west from eight o'clock in the morning to one in the afternoon, and then approaches to it again till nine at night. A new period occurs in the night, whose termination is about eight o'clock in the morning, when the needle is nearest to the north. Saussure's observation is perhaps connected with this fact, for he tells us that the electricity increases gradually from four in the morning, when it is scarcely perceptible, to noon or two in the afternoon, when it is greatest. In the different months it goes on increasing from November to March, and then diminishes gradually till September: this is not very consonant to electrical appearances, which are stronger in summer than winter. The greatest variation of our author's needle occurred at the time of the aurora borealis, the 27th of March of the present year, at nine o'clock in the evening. The extent of its variation, and its violent agitations from two o'clock, made him suspect the appearance of an aurora, which in fact was observed at ten o'clock; and it was very bright.

Thé abbé Hervieu has lately given an account of an electrical meteor, which, though not very singular, may be shortly noticed. The fifth of last February was very rainy: the barometer was constantly at twenty-six inches seven-twelfths; the wind from the south, frequently blowing in gusts, attended with violent rains. Between eight and nine the evening was calm; and the wind from the north-west, when a light suddenly appeared which overpowered the flame of the candle. On going into the air, the sky seemed clear in the south, and cloudy in the north-west; there was a misty rain, and the light was again conspicuous, though it was not easy to distinguish the quarter from whence it came. From the north west very bright brilliant lightning was observed, and soon after some very loud claps of thunder. In the intervals of the lightning, a bright light was perceived near the foundation of a neighbouring church, and immediately a slight flame rose, covering all the chapels which are supported by the tower, from whence it arose to the top of the bell. It ceased first on the top, and the whole was terminated by a very bright flash of lightning. It is evident from this account that the earth was overcharged with electrical matter, and the clouds in a negative state. The moistened walls of the chapels served as conductors, and the points, for it is of Gothic architecture, carried off the fluid: the clouds above them became positive; and, as there were then no points to draw off the matter, the communication of the electrical fluid to the neighbouring clouds was attended with an explosion, which soon established the equilibrium. M. l'abbé Chappe has described and delineated a very simple and useful machine to distinguish the positive from the negative electricity; but it is not easy for us to follow him without the plate: it may be

be seen in the first number of the *Journal de Physique* of the present year. The same author has described a new electrometer, which appears to be a very nice and convenient instrument. It is described and delineated in the number for June last. We can also do little more than mention the improvements on the cushions, adapted by M. Van Marum to his electrical machine, which greatly increases its power, and brings it within one-third to the strength of Teyler's machine: similar cushions are to be adapted to that vast apparatus, and to prepare for such an increase of power, he has prepared a hundred bottles, each of which is five square feet and a half; so that the whole will furnish five hundred and fifty square feet of coated glass. The principles of his improvements are forming the anterior parts of the cushion, or that part which presses against the plate of electric or non-conducting substances; applying the amalgam to the silk, to prevent any part of the excited fluid returning towards the amalgam, and fixing the silk in its place, so as not to admit of folds. The amalgam which he prefers is that of M. Kienmaijer, described formerly: it consists, as we have already said, of two parts of mercury, one part of purified zinc, and one of tin. The effects of electricity on mercury alone are curious: it changes the metal into a kind of powder, and then renders it volatile. If another apparatus is employed the mercury may be fixed on the glass, so as not to run out when the glass is turned up, and the lower surface of the mercury appears flat: this is undoubtedly owing to a degree of calcination. If copper is sprinkled with a mercurial calx, electricity reduces the mercury, and amalgamates it with copper.—But we are stepping from our path.

The only other meteorological appearance, that we shall mention, is a peculiar lunar rainbow, which was observed in France on the 8th of September in the last year. The day was rainy; the clouds, when the sun set, were distinct, thick, and in large masses, beautifully coloured. It appeared to be more strongly marked than lunar rainbows generally are, having all the shades, from a very clear to a very deep grey, though not so accurately distinguished as the colours in the solar rainbow. One part of the semicircle was also much clearer than the rest, while the rest of the horizon was dark, except when occasionally illuminated by some distant flashes of lightning. It began at forty-five minutes after seven, and ended twenty-six minutes after eight. The lunar rainbows which we have seen, and they are uncommon, were much more transitory.

We may now be permitted to return to the earth, and we shall endeavour to supply our deficiencies in the sketch of Natural History; so that this present article must be considered as the supplement of two unfinished ones. The revolutions on the surface of the earth are rather sudden, as they are produced by volcanos; or more gradual, from the slow operation of less violent causes. Volcanos are now uncommon; and this is owing,
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in a great degree, to countries being cleared, and ventilation more free, by which the electrical equilibrium is kept up, without the violence of storms, hurricanes, or burning mountains. Little is now left for philosophers, except in Iceland, Sicily, and Italy, but to observe the remains of these destructive, or, perhaps, more correctly, creative powers. They have not been inattentive to the subject, and have drawn on themselves, from the ignorant and conceited, the imputation of having proved the existence of volcanos where none ever existed. We remember conversing with an author of this kind, who had scattered his ridicule without much mercy, who actually mistook a bit of Jersey granite for Vesuvian lava: so little are those who pretend to laugh really acquainted with the subject! Of the extinguished volcanos in Provence, and particularly that of Courvine, we have an excellent description in a memoir published by M. Barbaroux, of Marseilles. The volcanos of Ollioules, in that neighbourhood, were discovered about ten years since, and have been often spoken of, though imperfectly described. They have been long since extinguished, and are now covered with useful vegetables. The town is built at the foot of two of these silent volcanos, which join with calcareous hills. From the Toulon road they appear more bold, because the village of Erenos is seen raised on enormous masses of lava, whose black colour forms a good contrast with the chalky hills. The nearest volcano, the subject of the first memoir, is called Courvine; and the other St. Barbe: they are separated only by a narrow valley, and seem to have been once united. Each is raised on a basis of lime-stone, like the basaltic of the Giants Causeway; and these mountains are also basaltic. Near the top the fusion does not seem to have been complete, there are many unchanged pieces of quartz, of which the mountain perhaps originally consisted. M. Barbaroux traces with great distinctness the different courses of the lava, and explains the form of the basaltic, which is a little irregular. As the prisms, like those of the Giant's Causeway, are raised on lime-stone, it is probable that the hill was formed by the pouring down of liquid lava from some neighbouring volcanic mountain, of which there are many near; unless it be supposed that the lava burst through the calcareous shell, which is not improbable. There are many marks of the sea having been on the spot where the mountain began to burn; indeed from the time of Pliny it has been known that the coast was the scene of volcanos. Much of this lava has begun to crumble away into its constituent parts, and some seems to have reached its last stage of decomposition, and become clay.

The mountain of St. Barbe is described in a second memoir. This mountain is separated from the former, seemingly by a torrent of water, which has carried vast masses of different matters into the valley; and is divided by different ravines, where clay, marle, and volcanic substances are found intimately mixed.

ed. This mountain seems, from many circumstances, to have been the centre of the intensest fire; and it affords too the most frequent instances of the rounded basaltes, which our author explains from the sudden cooling of the external parts, which leaves the internal ones to contract gradually, and form a denser rounded mass, apparent when the external surface is broken. The clay, our author assures us, is the last state of basaltic lavas, and its ultimate decomposition, effected by water alone, though M. Dolomieu tells us that the clay entered the composition, and is only evolved. M. Barbaroux refers us, in support of his opinion, to the collection of argillaceous lavas of M. Lardier: but the question requires farther elucidation. There is undoubtedly a gradual change in all cellular lavas, and a tendency to become clay: it is certain also, that this change is carried on at the same time in every part of the mass, though most quickly on the surface. Yet, in our present view, we can perceive no efficient cause for this change, since water and air are the only agents; but, at the same time no separation of the different ingredients appear, which M. Dolomieu's hypothesis would lead us to suspect, for the whole remains is clay alone, and often very pure clay.

The baron de Hupfch has printed some 'Mineralogical Researches,' which we find are to be continued, on 'the remarkable origin and important usefulness of the tufa of Cologne.' We chiefly mention his memoir, as it contains 'some convincing proofs of the existence of immense volcanos on the banks of the Rhine, in the province of Cologne, Bergue, and Treves, in the most remote ages.' Our author has also published the first volume of the 'Natural History of Lower Germany, and other Countries, &c.' at Nuremberg, in the German language. The Memoir before us contains some mineralogical criticisms on Cronstedt's Description of the Tufa, which are of no great importance. The tufa of Cologne is composed of a mixture of many species of stone, which may be easily distinguished. It contains principally pumice-stone, which is in fact found in all the old tufas, as may be perceived in the ancient walls, though in some specimens, it seems to have been washed away: it contains some stones of a deep blue, which are a melted calx of iron, with stones of different kinds, mixed without any regularity. From these remains our author concludes, that this was once a volcanic country.

We shall not probably have a more convenient place for M. Dolomieu's Memoir on the Ponciæ Insulæ, for we have long waited to find room for it among our separate articles; it is a supplement to the same author's Voyage to the Lipari Islands, and contains also a catalogue of the productions of Etna, subservient to a history of volcanos, with a description of the eruption of Etna in 1787. Sir William Hamilton, who went there in 1785, was the first naturalist who had attended to these curious islands; and, at his instigation, our author visited them

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in 1786. Sir William Hamilton's description has been already published in the *Philosophical Transactions*.

M. Dolomieu went first to the island of Ischia, which is not strictly one of the *Ponciæ Insulæ*, though near to them. It is yet burning: sulphureous vapours and mineral waters are common; but the island is fertile and inhabited: the husbandmen may be said literally 'to tread on ashes strewed over an insidious fire.' The two first of the *Ponciæ Insulæ* are called *Pendataria*; the largest, *Ventotiene*, was anciently distinguished by this name, and was the place of the banishment of Julia. It is wholly formed of tufa, of immense thickness, without any laminæ or divisions of any kind. In this tufa the port as well as the ancient and modern grottoes are hollowed out. But no crater can be found; and, vast as the mass of tufa is, this island can only be considered as the fragment of another volcano, which has been destroyed by time, and the gradual encroachments of the sea. This insidious power has already attacked *Ventotiene*; and our author calculates that it will be wholly covered in a hundred and fifty years. It is inhabited by about two hundred people. The soil is fertile; but the winds, from whence probably it has its name, are often fatal to the harvests. *Ponza* is also truly volcanic, and already covered in part by the sea. In it are found basaltæ, which M. Dolomieu, after Bergman, thinks are always owing to the cooling of the lava in water. *Zanona* contains a volcanic mass, resting, as we have seen it in other places, on calcareous earth; but the union of these two substances of such different origin cannot be traced, as the island is covered with thick wood.

The productions of *Etna* our author divides into those immediately produced by the fire, as lavas, pumice-stone, &c. Secondly, those formed during the tranquillity of the volcano, as salts, sulphurs, and bodies which are attacked by sulphureous matters. Thirdly, those which owe their origin to a slow decomposition, by the infiltration of water into the cavities; these are zeolithes, calcareous spars, quartz, &c. Fourthly, those which have an indirect relation to the volcano, and belong rather to its ancient history than to its inflammation. The eruption of *Etna* on the 17th of July, was from its crater, which is not common, for the matter usually finds a lateral vent, after the mountain had been quiet six years. The height of the flame was estimated at 500 toises (3184 English feet). The great torrent of lava ran four leagues. Mr. Swinburne has told us, that the canon *Recupero* was confined for having said that the world had lasted 20,000 years; but we find, from M. Dolomieu, that this is a mistake, and that the good ecclesiastic has suffered 'no other inconvenience than that of seeing his creed and orthodoxy attacked in M. Brydson's *Travels*.'

The slower changes in the state of the earth, from encroaching or retreating seas, we have always carefully pointed out: one remarkable memoir only occurs to us of this kind. It is intitled,

titled, 'Enquiries on the following question; has the sea changed its place, and its progressive level, in the extent of coast between Saugate and Frizeland?' This question relates to the size and extent of the Zuyder Zee; and our author, with great labour and sufficient accuracy, examines the descriptions of Cæsar, and the earliest geographers. From their accounts he concludes, that the sea did not cover this extent of coast two thousand years ago, for he follows Velleius Paterculus, who has told us, this country was *inhabited* 150 or 200 years before the conquest of Cæsar. From other authorities he thinks it probable, that there has not been at least any increase of the land, by the deposition of earth, for 2000 years. He then enquires how far natural history supports this conclusion. The ground is black, spongy, and light, a mixture of sand and clay, with broken shells, of the species which is found on the coasts. Wells have been sunk at Dunkirk, to the depth of 314 feet; and at Amsterdam of 232 feet. At Dunkirk, the first 105 feet consisted of very different strata, forming confused masses of earth and sand of different sorts, mixed with flints, grit, broken and rounded pieces of chalk. It seemed composed of the rubbish of the higher ground, with the remains of vegetables and animal substances, particularly shells, almost in their natural state. The next 209 feet contained no foreign body, either mineral, animal, or vegetable. It was a bed of very fine brown clay, some parts of which were petrified, and formed very hard kernels like flint, such as are in the coal mines of Hainault; in short it appeared to be the continuation of that vast base which is extended through Flanders and Hainault. At Amsterdam the rubbish ends at 99 feet, and the clay extends through the rest of the space; but the description is imperfect. Our author afterwards examines different parts of this coast, and finds no analogy in the composition, or the time of formation between the strata on the inundated ground, and those on the ground above: yet the superior strata are similar; and the base is the same. From thence he concludes, that they are not produced by the successive and continued operation of the sea. The superior marine strata are, he thinks, all of the same age; and there is no evidence of the progressive sinking of the sea for 2000 years past. He next endeavours to answer the remarks of naturalists, who have been of a different opinion; but he then considers the question generally, and seems to contend, that the sea has not changed its level at all. Of this there certainly can be no evidence; for we can only show that the sinking of one part of the globe has compensated for the rising of another: the sea cannot have one general level, for, under the tropics, it must be raised not only from the centrifugal force, but from the dilatation of the water by the heat of the sun. If the author means to limit his question to the spot mentioned, and to the period of 2000 years, so often repeated, we may admit his position. The superior strata were evidently formed before the sea had burst through the Straits of Dover, and since

that time they have probably not greatly increased, for the eddy has been evidently on the opposite shores, where gravel and marine bodies have been found at four times the depth which has occurred at Dunkirk or Amsterdam. The height of the ground would, therefore, throw the water more towards the coast of Flanders, and propel the sea, as our author suspects, really on the land.

While we are considering this progressive state of the land, we must not overlook M. Hennicke's Memoir on the African Geography of Herodotus. It obtained the prize of last year, and contains many curious circumstances respecting the different nations of Africa, their situation, their mountains and seas, particularly the northern part, and Egypt, which Herodotus has run over so far as Sienna. He treats also of their productions, their manners, and their climate. The inhabitants of Africa are derived from two principal sources, the Lybians, among whom, after the Egyptians, are counted the inhabitants of the northern coasts, as well as of Sahara; and the Ethiopians, which comprehend not only the southern countries above Egypt, on the two branches of the Nile, towards the Arabian Gulf and the Indian Ocean, but the nations bordering on the Niger, and those of the western coasts so far as the equator. The country to the west of mount Atlas, which Herodotus was well acquainted with, from the Pillars of Hercules to the country above the Solois, probably Cape Cantin, was inhabited by Lybians, whose peculiar names Herodotus seems scarcely to have pointed out. Of those to the east of Atlas, so far as Hop-tonomia, he has mentioned five different wandering tribes, who five ten days journey from each other, between whom the southern tribe of Garamantes are placed. In Lower Egypt, M. Hennicke has deviated from D'Anville, who is said to have often mistaken the position of different towns, which Herodotus had determined from their relative situation to the branches of the Nile. Yet much caution should be used when these relations are transferred to modern times, on account of the revolutions which have taken place in the face of the country. With respect to the situation of Memphis, he agrees with M. D'Anville; and, in his tables of latitudes and longitudes, drawn from the different passages of Herodotus, he does not greatly differ from D'Anville and Pococke.

M. Henze's Essay on the Ancient History of the Circle of Franconia; and particularly of Bayruth, must be noticed in this place. The first part of the work has, however, only appeared, and it treats chiefly of the Sclavonians, who possessed a great part of the principality. Their having possessed it is not only proved by cotemporary authors; but by the manners and customs, and even the names of different places, which they have left. They have left also something more important, a spirit of industry, no contemptible system of agriculture, and a knowledge of the management of bees. Their conversion

conversion was slow; it was completed by erecting the bishoprick of Bamberg, under the emperor Henry II.

M. Nau's *Memoirs*, subservient to the natural history of Mayence, has been published in French and German; at least two numbers have already appeared, comprehending a description of the fishes, the amphibia, and the birds. The first number of *Memoirs*, subservient to the natural history of Walachia, appeared also at Tubingen, in the course of last year. After giving an account of the different maps and engravings suitable to his purpose, the author, M. Roessler, follows the Necker, and the rivers which flow into it, so far as its mouth, at Steinlach, near Tubingen. In this order the history and the description of the salt-works at Sulz, on the Necker, occupy the greatest part of this number. The sulphureous sources of Schwenningen; the whirlpools at the source of the Necker are also examined. Wood-ferrel is so common in this country, that a surgeon is said to have separated many quintals of the salt. Near Rodelshausen, a village where much flax is cultivated, it is said that near two thirds of the lake Buzer is drained. The 'Observations on Walachia and Moldavia,' published in the course of last year, are of no little importance. These countries are less known than America; so that the author, who resided there near eleven years, and has collected what he could meet with of consequence respecting their civil and political history, has been well employed. The work is published at Naples, and appears to be truly valuable; but the name of the author is concealed.

If we proceed beyond the surface of the earth, we shall find two works which deserve to be mentioned. The 'Elements of Subterraneous Geometry,' by M. Duhamel, are very useful. They treat of the veins of minerals, and their situation in the earth; of trigonometry applied to ascertain the direction of these veins, and the conduct of the miner, of the construction of plans and profiles, with figures and tables, which, without any calculations, show the value of the two sides of a rectangular triangle, whose hypotenuse is known. We have announced this work; but have yet received only the first volume. If possible, when it is completed, we shall give a fuller and more satisfactory account of it.

The only other work that remains is M. Patria's very valuable *Memoir* on the mines of Siberia. It contains, however, much that is only interesting to the practical mineralogist, and much that belongs to the chemical department: we shall extract what chiefly applies to the subject of our present article. The mines of Siberia are divided by nature into three departments, placed at a great distance from each other. The first, or that nearest Europe, is styled Katherinebourg: it is at the entrance of Siberia, on the eastern ridge of the great chain of the mountains Oural, where it occupies in length an extent of an hundred and fifty leagues, parallel to this great chain, which

extends from north to south, between the 75th and 80th degree of longitude, from the icy sea to beyond the 50th degree of latitude. It produces a little gold, much copper, and an immense quantity of iron. The plains, which accompany the Ourlic chain, on the western side, abound in copper, which is in horizontal strata, mixed, in small masses, with gravel and exotic plants. This is not the only instance of almost the whole of Russia having been once under the sea. The second department is that of Kolyvan, five hundred leagues to the east of Katherinebourg, between the Obi and the Irishi, about the hundredth degree of longitude, in the centre of Siberia, and in the hills which form the first steps of the chain of mount Altai, separated from the Oural mountains by a plain of four hundred leagues in extent. The Altaic chain extends from west to east, and divides Siberia from Chinese Tartary. These mines produce annually 60,000 marks of silver, which contain about $\frac{1}{3}$ of gold. There is a little copper and no iron. The third department is that of Nertchinsk, seven hundred leagues to the east of Kolyvan, between 135 and 140° of longitude, and from 50 to 53° of latitude. These mines are in the Daurie, the most eastern part of Siberia, beyond the lake Baikal, between the Chilka and Argoun, which soon unite to form the Amour, that falls into the Eastern Ocean. They give annually 30,000 marks of silver, contained in lead; the silver holding $\frac{1}{16}$ part of gold.

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Memoires de M. le Duc de St. Simon, sur le Regne de Louis XIV. & sur les premiers Epoques des Regnes suivans. 3 Tomes. 8vo. Londres. Marseilles. Mossy, Pere & Fils.

THOUGH London appears in the title page, these volumes are evidently printed in France; but from the freedom of some of the observations, it was perhaps too dangerous to allow of its being regularly published in that kingdom. The splendor, the magnificence, and the political influence of the court of Louis XIV. will, however, render it an object of importance, and we receive with pleasure the remarks of an eye-witness, after having been so long pestered with indecent publications, under the titles of Secret Memoirs, &c. &c.

Voltaire, in his Age of Louis XIV. and la Beaumelle in his Memoirs of Madam Maintenon, have made a judicious choice of the most curious anecdotes, and the best authenticated facts of that reign; but they have omitted many of equal importance and interest; nor have they profited by the Memoirs before us, which were long circulated and well known in manuscript. With an austere manner and no common frankness, the duke was, we apprehend, often deceived; but we perceive that, in general,

general, he aims at being exact; and if he appear at times a little scandalous, he may probably be only severe. Though that freedom, which we have styled frankness, seems to have been his character, we perceive some marks of bias, perhaps of prejudice. The duke and duchess of Burgundy appear to have been his favourites; but the duke de Vendôme is not treated so favourably: his faults and his neglects are the frequent theme. To the regent he is evidently partial; and the king is occasionally censured with severity. The work is said to be intolerably minute in the manuscript; and perhaps, on that account, out of twenty volumes, of which it is supposed to consist, these *Memoirs* are reduced to three: but the editor tells us, that every phrase is the property of the author; the turns, the expressions, and the careless negligence of the style, are peculiarly his own.

Louis XIV. was, we find, greatly neglected in his infancy: he was once found in a pond, and his amusements were of the commonest and most trifling kind. It is remarkable, that in his childish plays, he always attempted the part of a servant. Though possessed through his whole life with an ambition of conquests, he was not naturally brave, and, like Augustus, wished to keep at a distance from the field. In 1676, while in Flanders, he was very near the army of the prince of Orange. A council was held, whether the French army should attack, and all the marshals were persuaded that the advantages were evidently in the king's favour; but Louvois, who knew his master, privately caballed with the generals, and the attack was deferred, because opposed by the majority. The king affected some uneasiness at finding his martial ardour repressed. On another occasion, the prince of Orange was shut up between two French armies, each superior to his own, when the king suddenly resolved to return to Versailles, nor could all the entreaties and representations of M. de Luxemburg prevail on him to remain.

The greatest lord, as well as the most undistinguished individual, had the liberty of speaking to the king, when he went to, or returned from, mass; when he went from one apartment to the other, or to his coach. Those of the greatest rank spoke to him at the door of his cabinet, but without daring to follow him into it. His common answer was, 'I will see.' He scarcely ever gave an audience in his cabinet, even to those who gave him an account of commissions. He sometimes, though not always, spoke to the generals, when they went to or returned from the armies, but constantly in the presence of the minister of war. The letters came always through the hands of the minister: when the marshal de Turenne quarrelled with Louvois, he alone was allowed to send his letters by the cardinal de Bouillon. Yet, when an audience was granted, it was very advantageous if the person who requested it knew how to behave with respect. However prejudiced or discontented the king might be, he heard with attention and patience;

with an evident wish to explain and to be informed. Every thing might be said; Louis might even be contradicted, if it were done with an air of submission and respect; and the king was afterwards pleased with having discovered the truth.

Louis had the greatest desire of knowing what passed in private houses, in the domestic affairs of families, and in general in the world. This curiosity gave the greatest extent and importance to the functions of lieutenant of the police. He heard, with equal weakness and credulity, every tale told to him; he kept a crowd of spies, and the letters which they sent, were carried directly to him, and seen only by himself. Many were the victims of these secret accusations; for the king never forgave a man of whom he had heard any disadvantageous report. It must, however, be added, that his discretion was equal to his curiosity; for he understood how to dissemble, without saying an untruth. A striking example is subjoined: a lady of quality, whose husband had been absent in the army above a year was with child, at the moment of his expected return. She requested, and obtained an audience; when she related to the king her misfortune, as to the 'honestest man in the kingdom.' Louis promised to keep her husband at a distance, and he effectually performed it, till he could return without discovery.

Though completely master of himself in general, and sensible of the decorum and propriety requisite in the conduct of a king, he could not always command his passions. He once beat a servant, because, in clearing the table, he put a biscuit in his pocket, after he had been vexed at the ridicule of a newspaper. After some hours, he said to his confessor: 'My good father, I have beat a rascal, and broke my cane over his shoulders; but I do not think that I have offended the Almighty;'—then he mentioned the pretended crime. Another instance of the king's coolness is related: the fringe and the velvet of a grand apartment were unaccountably stolen, and five or six days afterwards, at supper, a vast parcel fell on the table; it is my fringe, says the king, and it proved so, accompanied with this billet—'Take thy fringe Bontems (the name of the valet), my compliments to the king.' We suspect strongly, that the king was in the secret, both of the robbery and the restitution.

Other princes have perhaps understood the art of reigning better than Louis; but no one was a better courtier. He roused with incredible address the emulation of those around him, by a number of little flattering attentions, which he thought of, and varied according to circumstances. The frequent entertainments, the particular expeditions to Versailles and to Marly, were so many methods to keep up every one's attention, and to excite their inclinations to please him, since he always chose his own parties. His eyes were constantly employed; he saw and observed every one, even those frequently who did not wish to be seen. It was a great merit with him to be attentive, and
when

when a favour was asked for any one who did not appear at Versailles, the answer was, 'I do not know him.' If he came seldom, it was 'I never see him;' and these decisions were irrevocable. No person ever gave with a better grace, or adjusted with more art his smiles, his looks, and his conversation. As he spoke seldom and shortly, his addressing any one was a great distinction. He never said a disobliging word; and no man, naturally polite, and of so well regulated a politeness, knew better how to distinguish age, merit, and rank. He always touched his hat to women, even to the female servants; to ladies he pulled it off, and never put it on again while with them. In every minute point he was equally attentive; and if he went out before the regulated hour, when the officers were not ready, he would say, 'it is my fault, I am before the hour.' He was familiar with his servants; they were insolent, and he, as well as the more artful courtiers, supported them. His fondness for flattery furnished the means of bringing him to any opinion which his ministers wished. As he piqued himself on knowing and hearing every thing, as well as acting for himself, the great secret was to pretend to be directed by him; and his ministers never governed so despotically as when they appeared to be governed. For this reason, he chose men of moderate talents, for he was afraid of superior and acknowledged abilities; and from this cause, many of the misfortunes of the latter part of his reign may be derived. Mansard, the superintendant of his buildings, brought him plans with obvious faults; and when the king discovered them, he praised highly the delicacy of his taste and the justness of his observations, which made him catch, in a moment, all the refinements of the art. Though he had neither voice nor ear, he sung passages in Quinault's prologues, which contained the grossest flatteries. He hummed at supper the same commendations, when the airs which usually accompanied them were played.

In great want, this proud monarch was reduced to make a kind of court to Samuel Bernard, the banker. His controller had made every attempt, and even Bernard was inflexible. Desmarets thought that vanity alone would make him open his purse; and Louis, so often flattered, condescended to flatter. When Bernard was brought to court, the king received him graciously, and said to him, 'You are a pretty gentleman never to have seen Marly; come and see my terrace; I will bring you back again to Desmarets.' The king showed him every thing, and talked to him very much, to the great surprize of those who knew how sparing of words he usually was, and who knew not the plot. The banker, intoxicated with so much attention, told the controller, that, though he should be ruined, he would not leave so gracious a prince in distress. The controller seized the favourable moment, and procured more than he ever expected.

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The great fault of Louis was suffering himself to be drawn into wars, which his ministers occasioned with the design of rendering themselves necessary. The origin of the war of 1682, is related in the following manner by M. de Saint Simon. 'Louvois, at the death of Colbert, had the superintendence of the buildings. The little Trianon, built formerly for madame Montespan, the king disliked, for he wanted palaces every where. He was greatly amused with building, and he had an accurate eye for proportions, symmetry, &c. but he had not an equal taste. This villa was scarcely risen above ground, when the king perceived an error in a window, which was finished to a level with the earth. Louvois, who was naturally brutal, and too much indulged to bear easily being blamed even by his master, opposed strongly his opinion, and insisted that the window was proper. The king turned about, and walked to another part of the building. The next day he met Le Notre, a good architect, famous for his taste in gardening, and asked him if he had been at Trianon: he said no. The king explained what he disliked, and told him to go there. The next day, he asked the same question, and had the same answer; the day following the same. The king saw, that he wished not to expose himself by finding fault, or by blaming Louvois. He was angry, and ordered him to go the next day to Trianon, where he went also, and where Louvois was. There was now no retreating; to Trianon he went; and the first examination was about the window. Louvois disputed; Le Notre said not a word. At last the king ordered him to measure, and report how he found it. While he was at work, Louvois, enraged at this proof, grumbled aloud and insisted that this window was parallel with the others. When the measurement was finished, he began to examine the gardener how it appeared, and Le Notre began to stammer. The king, in a passion told him to speak out. Le Notre then confessed, that the king was right, and explained the defect, which he found. He had no sooner finished, than the king turned to Louvois; told him, that it was impossible to bear with his obstinacy; that without his remark, the building would have been awry, and must have been taken down when built: in a word, he reprimanded him severely. "It is over," said Louvois soon afterwards; "I am ruined in the king's opinion, as I perceive by his method of treating me about this window. I have no resource, but in a war, which shall overturn his building, and make me necessary to him:—by G— he shall have it." In effect, some months after he kept his word; and in spite of the king, as well as the other powers, he rendered it general. It ruined France internally, and did not extend her territories, notwithstanding the prosperity of her arms; on the other side, it produced some disgraceful events.'

These and some other similar anecdotes will excuse Louis, who used to reproach himself for his fondness for war; but they

they will make the memory of his ministers execrable. The same wild ambition to make the war more durable, and take away every hope of reconciliation, made Louvois give directions for the devastation of the Palatinate, the burning of Worms and Spires, while he consoled himself by keeping his place. He even proposed burning Treves; but this Louis rejected with indignation. After this, he told the king, that he perceived a scrupulous conscience only prevented his consent; and, on that account, he had ordered the city to be burnt, as it would save the charge of keeping it. The king, in a violent passion, seized the *stre-rongs*, and attacked the minister with this weapon, but was held by madame Maintenon. When he was a little appeased, he ordered him to dispatch different orders, and that he should lose his head, if a single house was burnt. The counter-order was easily managed, for the first had not been sent; he wanted to sound only the king's inclinations, and the courier was waiting, with the dispatches ready, to set out on the minister's return.

At the siege of Mons, the king, in his usual walk, found a guard of cavalry improperly placed. He immediately altered it; but, going that way in the afternoon, he found his arrangement changed. When he enquired who had done it, he was told Louvois, though he knew the alteration had been made by the king. Louis was much piqued, and said, 'Is not this very much like Louvois? He fancies himself a great general, and imagines that he knows every thing.' He again changed the position of the guard, and from this time the credit of Louvois sunk very much. He died suddenly; and, to an officer sent by the king of England to condole Louis on his loss, he said, make my compliments, with thanks, to the king and queen, and tell them from me, that my affairs and theirs will not suffer by this event. In fact, Louvois was to have been arrested and conducted to the Bastile the next morning.

Nothing is more curious than the contrivance of ministers to make a king do what they please, when he is aware of their artifices, and resolved not to be their dupe. The duke has described it with great exactness. The king and madame Maintenon were seated in their separate chairs, with a table before each, in the opposite corners (coins) of the chimney; the lady on the side nearest the bed; the king with his back towards the wall, on the other side, where the door of the antichamber was placed. Two stools were before her table, one for her work-bag, and the other for the minister. While he was transacting business, she read or worked on tapestry. She heard all that passed, but rarely interfered. When asked for her opinion, she answered with great caution. She seemed fond of no plan, nor interested for any person; but she was on the minister's side. If the king hesitated on what the lady said, the minister persisted in it; and, after balancing different plans, making objections, or pointing out advantages, madame de Maintenon generally

generally led to what the minister had dwelt on ; though she generally pretended, at first, that she was incapable of judging, When the king saw to what their hesitation tended, or what relation or dependant the minister or the lady wished to prefer, he continued firm, and would say half ill-naturedly and half humorously, ‘ that such a one had paid his court with success, for he was not able to serve him of his own accord, without the interference of madame Maintenon.’ When he was more angry, she sometimes used to shed tears, or occasionally to be ill. When le Tellier was urged to procure the king’s assent to something difficult, he replied, ‘ You do not know the ground. Of twenty recommendations, we shall succeed with nineteen ; but we do not know in what we shall miscarry, and perhaps it is what we have most at heart. The king reserves this rub for us, to show that he is master. When opposed in his contradictions, he will often be in a passion ; but, when it is over, he relents, and we seize that happy moment to do what we please.’

Louis has been reproached with egotism and obstinacy. In fact, what he proposed he would never change ; and, though very gallant to the ladies, he often put them to great inconvenience, by the improper and mistimed arrangements of his plans. Even his daughters were not more attended to in these respects. In his journeys, he had always vast quantities of provisions, and almost at the end of every mile, he would ask his companions to eat, though he never eat himself. Unfortunately, it was not reckoned polite to refuse these intimations, even when they were to sup with the king, and expected to eat again. The king too loved air, and whatever was the inconvenience to the ladies, they must not draw the curtain as a defence against the sun, the wind, or the dust. This is an unpleasant kind of despotism. Madame Maintenon often obtained leave to travel separately ; but she must be ready to receive the king when he arrived, and she often travelled more dead than alive. If she had a fever and head-ach, when the king’s fancy led to it, her room must be lighted up, music and company introduced while she was in bed, in a fit of an ague, or the violent perspiration which terminated it. The duchess of Burgundy, his daughter, from one of these ill-timed expeditions to Marly, miscarried. When M. de Rouchefoucault observed, that it was a great misfortune, since she had already miscarried so often, and it was now improbable that she would ever have another child, the king unfeelingly replied—‘ Though it should be so, of what consequence would it be to me ; has she not already a son ? suppose he should die, is not the duke de Berry of an age to be married ? of what importance is it to me who is my successor ? are they not all my grand-children ?’ He soon added, with some impetuosity—‘ She miscarried, because she was with child, and I shall be no longer restricted in my journeys and in doing what I wish, by the remonstrances of physicians and the reasoning of old women. I shall go and come, as I please, and be left

left in quiet.' This trait of severity was probably not natural to him, since every one was so silent, that 'an ant might have been heard to walk.' Louis was reduced to the necessity of talking to the carp in the ponds, as he leaned over the balustrades. They caught the infection, and would not answer him, so that the king soon went away. The duke tells us, that he was present at this scene.

There is a pleasant anecdote of Charnacé, who had a superb villa at Anjou, but the avenue was disfigured by the house of a taylor, who would not sell it. He sent for him one day, told him that he was sent for to court, and must have a livery directly, which must be made in the house. In the mean time, he took the most accurate plan of his house, garden, and every particular, took down the house (it was probably of wood, as all the common houses in France at that time were), and built it again at the distance of five or six hundred yards, replaced all his goods, and levelled the spot in the avenue where the house stood before the livery was finished. In this interval, the taylor was carefully watched and sent home, in a very dark night. He went to the former spot, missed the house, and searched every where till day, without finding it. At day-break, he saw a house at a distance like his own, went to it, and found it to be the same. He had no doubt of the change being effected by witchcraft, till the ridicule of the village informed him of the truth. He was very angry, and demanded justice of the intendant; but, as no injury had been done, he was only laughed at on all sides.

As these remarks are written without order, or at least, as in their present state, different anecdotes are put together somewhat miscellaneously, we have not attempted to pursue our author very regularly. But in the minutest circumstances, there is often something which illustrates peculiar characters, or adds to our knowledge respecting the manners of the times. Though our article has been somewhat extended, we shall extract a part of the chapter intitled, 'Singular Facts respecting the Will of Louis XIV.'

The king grew old without any material change in his external appearance or habits; but those who looked at him nearer, thought that he could not live long. On the 27th of August 1714, he gave the first president and the procurator-general, whom he expressly sent for, a large packet sealed with seven seals—'Gentlemen,' says he, 'this is my will; and no one knows, except myself, what it contains. I give it to you, that you may convey it to the parliament, to which I cannot offer a greater mark of esteem and confidence than by making it the guardian of this instrument. The example of the king my father, and of his predecessors, teach me what will happen to it; but people have wished it: I have been tormented about it, and have had no peace. Take it, and carry it away. Let what will happen to it, I shall be at rest, and hear no more of it.' He made a slight distant bow, and retired.

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The next morning, the queen of England came from Chail-lot to madame Maintenon, where the king was. When he saw her, he said—'Madam, I have made my will: I have been teized to do it.' Fixing his eyes then on madame Maintenon, he added, 'I have bought some rest; I know its weakness and its inutility; we can do what we please, when we are alive; but, after our deaths, we have less power than any private person. It is necessary only to look at my father, and the events which happened soon after his death, to be convinced of this fact; or to look at the events subsequent to the deaths of other kings. I know it well; and yet others have been very eager about it.' The will was kept with uncommon precautions; but it is well known that Louis judged rightly of what would happen.

In the portraits our author is very successful, notwithstanding the peculiarity of his language, which will make the translation difficult. In this respect, we must offer an apology for ourselves: we have found the translation of our quotations no easy task; and we have sometimes been obliged to give the sense rather than the exact words; though, in general, we have preferred the phraseology of the original—but to return. The characters show us, that the duke looked at men with an experienced eye. He catches their true features, their peculiarities, and their foibles; and his portraits are sketched with a bold and rapid pencil, which have the characteristic features of nature, and convince us, in a moment, of the fidelity of the painter. We shall select a part of the account of Fenelon: the whole would be too long.

'This prelate was a large man, thin, well made, with a large nose, eyes whose fire and spirit darted like a torrent; and features such as I never saw before, and which those who had once seen them could never forget. His countenance seemed to express every thing; yet the opposite qualities were well blended: it displayed gravity, complacency, seriousness, and gaiety; it equally suited the doctor, the bishop, and the nobleman. The prevailing character of his face and his person was refinement, genius, grace, decorum, and above all nobility. It required some effort to turn the eyes from him. All his portraits were speaking ones, without being able always to express the justness of the harmony which was so striking in the original, and the delicacy of each character which was united in the countenance. His manners answered to his appearance; with an ease which rendered others easy; with an air and taste which are only learnt in the best company, and from the greatest men, with whom he was constantly surrounded, in all his conversations: with these accomplishments he possessed a natural eloquence, mild and florid; an insinuating politeness, but noble and well regulated; an easy, clear, and agreeable elocution; a perspicuity and neatness, which rendered his discourse intelligible on the most abstracted and intricate subjects. He was a man too

too who did not aim at displaying more genius than those with whom he conversed; who put himself on the level with every one, without shewing himself to be the foundation of the little constraint which they felt; and who seemed to fascinate his company so much, that they were not able to leave him, keep themselves from him, or avoid returning to him. This rare talent, which he had in so great a degree, kept his friends closely attached to him, in spite of his disgrace; and who, though dispersed, would sometimes meet to talk of him, to regret him, to wish for him, and to unite themselves more closely to him.

This is a delightful portrait, which we have copied with no little care in the forcible style of the original: a manner in which this work ought to be translated; but which we have found by experience to be so difficult, that we despair of its being done with success. It has detained us so long, that we have no room for any more. We can only add, that, at the end, there is a Supplement, which contains a description of the court of France in 1711, a letter from Louis XIV. to the king of Spain, and some account of the most celebrated ladies of the court. On the whole, we have not met with a work of this kind more truly interesting and entertaining.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O E T R Y.

*A Poetic Epistle from Gabrielle D'Estrees, to Henry the Fourth.
By Anthony Pasquin, Esq. 4to. 2s. Robinsons.*

AH my poor heart, what black ideas rise,
To rive thy core and inundate my eyes!
Some nymph more favour'd feels within his arms,
Her o'ercharg'd bosom heave with love's alarms;
Some beauteous hirelings smiling to betray,
Some Phryne rais'd the mistress of a day!

Thus laments the beautiful and elegant Gabrielle D'Estrees her hero's falshood: and thus in a most exceeding figurative style, not very intelligibly indeed, advises the easy fair to guard against his seductions:

'If in the vortex of his arts you're found,
Your agency will die, your sense run round.
There Ruin's baneful circles never cease,
Till central potency ingulphs your peace!'

The reflection on woman's 'fence of worth by heaven made too slight,' which follows, is prodigiously pathetic. She thus expresses her gentle wishes;

'Weakly her plaints, your lowly victim pours,
As the white foam that washes Mona's shores.'

The reader will doubtless be pleased to find that they were crowned

crowned with success. The concluding lines evidently show that Henry was as much 'agitated' by her strains, as the stone by those of Amphion :

' By joyant nature, let high Phœbus sing,
I see, I know the super-human king !
He comes, he comes, with more than mortal charms,
I feel, I faint, my God, I'm in his arms !'

A Word to the Wife ; or, Britons Beware. A Satire. By Col. Wilkins. 4to. 2s. Ridgway.

' To strike at ministerial oppression, and endeavour to arouse Englishmen from their present lethargy,' is the *benevolent* purpose of the following poem, which thus opens.

' Think not I mean in *suifisme* notes to sing
Of Pitt and Thurlow, Charlotte and the King ;
To burn sweet incense in each oily line,
Or bid the flatt'ring Muse's flambeaux thine ;
Or copying *wind-o'--loyalty*, display
Poetic exultation's flaring ray ;
While length'ning praises like the streets illumine,
To shed a baleful light on freedom's tomb.—
Far other ardors my hot breast inspire,
And truth's rich blaze subdues factitious fire.
Within my bosom's core, the struggling flame
Pants to expand, and pierce a night of shame,
To guide each British eye-ball to behold
The spectre slavery, in her chains of gold.
Yes, I will strive to weave the potent spell,
And hurl the demon to the depths of hell ;
To wake in ev'ry honest heart, a rage
No fear can overcome, no bribes assuage ;
And call around me still the gallant few,
Who dare oppose ambition, and be true.'

We do not understand the seventh line, and there are many others equally obscure ; yet the numbers, however calculated the performance itself may be to excite discord, are in general extremely harmonious, and not destitute of strength and spirit : they do not, however, breathe the spirit of sobriety and truth. But we shall have nothing farther to do with this firebrand, lest we burn our own fingers.

Bell's Classical Arrangement of Fugitive Poetry, Vols. V. VI. and VII. Small 8vo. 9s. 6d. sewed. Bell.

We have now little more to do than to announce these successive volumes. The fifth contains epistles satirical and preceptive, in which we meet with Dr. Johnson's imitations of Juvenal's Satires, the Heroic Epistle to Sir William Chambers, and other pieces of acknowledged merit ; the sixth comprehends Epistles panegyrical and gallant : the seventh the modern, heroic, and amatory Epistles.

D R A M A T I C.

The Family Party; a Comic Piece, in Two Acts, as acted at the Theatre Royal, Haymarket. 8vo. 1s. D. Brett.

This little farce is written in the spirit of Foote, and the author seems to have looked up to him in more than one instance, unless a rigid critic will insist that Papillon's story in the *Liar* is only a copy of the servant of Bookwit, in the *Lying Lover* of Steele. With this spirit of our Aristophanes, we meet with much of the equivocal of the younger Colman, or rather, perhaps, of the author of the *First Floor*; and the acid united with so much sweetness, must make an agreeable sherbet, a cooling liquor for the summer evenings.

As It Should be: a Dramatic Entertainment, in One Act: as performed at the Theatre Royal in the Haymarket. 8vo. 1s. Lowndes.

As these little pieces should not be tried by the rigid rules of criticism, we may be allowed to be pleased without a certificate from Aristotle, and without being too exact in estimating probabilities. The character of Lord Megrim is, we believe, new; and the adventures in this busy little drama are numerous; and the general conduct interesting.

Half an Hour after Supper: an Interlude, in One Act, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Haymarket. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

The adventures of the novel-readers, in the *Half Hour after Supper*, are pleasing and entertaining; but they carry the jest farther than to be entertained with fictitious elopements. Two sharpers are introduced, one of whom catches the aunt, after he has been disappointed in carrying away the niece.

L'Ecole du Scandale, ou Les Mœurs du Jour, Comedie par Monsieur Sheridan: Traduite en François, par Mr. Bunel Delille, 1790. 2s. 6d. Debrett.

This lively Frenchman, who, to use his own words, is as well acquainted with usurers, as the dissipated hero of the play, but not so fortunate in an uncle Oliver, has translated Mr. Sheridan's pleasant comedy with great spirit, and as much humour as his language will admit of. From what copy the translation was executed, we are not told: the only passage which relates to it is worded with a studied obscurity; it occurs in the Dedication to lord M'Donald.

'You know, my lord, in what a mysterious way this piece, which was never printed except clandestinely, was found last summer in a folio manuscript on my table; and, if you please to recollect, after informing you of the accident, I ran to Mr. Sheridan, to ask his permission "to transplant, in our climate, this precious flower, which would bear fruit in every country, and do honour to the gardener." Mr. Sheridan was willing to give up the plant to my care, without being afraid of its dying

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in my hands.' This testimony does not amount to an acknowledgment that his copy was the original; or that Mr. Sheridan considered it as a faithful transcript. In this state we cannot make it an object of our more particular regard: so far as our recollection reaches, it is a faithful, and often an elegant translation of the comedy, as it is surreptitiously circulated, said to be printed in Dublin.

The author apologizes for giving this play the title of *Ecce du Scandale*, since the proper French word for scandal is *mediocrité*; but his apology is at the expence of the author. The first acts only, says he, relate to scandal. It may perhaps be asked, to what the subsequent acts relate? Is it to *mediocrité*, *scandale*, or any single word French or English?

In reality, Mr. Sheridan's play is calculated to make criticism ashamed, and even disarm the Stagyrite of his severity; for almost every rule of the drama is violated, and the reader cannot, for a moment, believe a description, which is so totally void of probability, real. But the spectator forgets all the faults: he sees it again and again with fresh pleasure; nor does he for a moment think of the unity of time or place, or probability or consistency.

M E D I C A L.

A Treatise on the Distastes of Children with general Directions for the Management of Infants from the Birth. By Michael Underwood, M. D. A new Edition, revised and enlarged. In 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Matthews,

The first edition we commended in our LVIIIth volume, p. 425. It is now enlarged in almost every part, and many new complaints as well as new directions are added, till it is brought to more than double its former bulk. In general, we think it much improved; though, in this enlarged form, many circumstances, perhaps too trifling for medical practitioners, are admitted.

A Practical Treatise on the Gonorrhœa, and on the superior Efficacy of the Cure by Injection. By Peter Clave, Surgeon. 8vo, 1s. Cadell.

We examined the first edition of this little tract in Volume LI. p. 393, and we now perceive that its excellence or popularity, for they are by no means synonymous, has brought it to the fifth edition. In this interval there have been some omissions, and formulæ for injections are added. We do not find any new arguments for the practice, which experience has not yet unexceptionably established, and which is certainly not advisable in the early stages.

Speculations on the Mode and Appearances of Impregnation in the Human Female, with an Examination of the present Theories of Generation. By a Physician. 2s. 6d. Elliott and Kay.

These Speculations are written with peculiar force, elegance, and

and delicacy. The author opposes every system, except that (suggested first, we believe, in a *Treatise of Midwifery*, by Dr. Johnson, in quarto) of absorption. We think, however, that he fails in his attack on his predecessor's systems, and in the support of his own. The abilities, however, displayed in this work are by no means inconsiderable; but in such an abstruse enquiry it is no disgrace to fail.

An Essay on the Erysipelasous Sore Throat. To which is subjoined, an Account of a Case of Hemiplegia. By Thomas Reeve, Surgeon. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardson.

This Essay is plain and practical: we find in it little to blame and as little to praise. Our author's gargles are, however, neither warm nor antiseptic enough; and the exploded contrayerva, with bark, are the proper medicines for this purpose. When the stomach rejects bark, Mr. Reeve gives it in glysters: this may be right; but, unless there is much putrid fever, eating a few pepper-corns will answer as well.

A Treatise upon the Typhus Fever: published for the Benefit of establishing a Lying-in Hospital, in Baltimore. By George Buchanan, M. D. 12mo. 1s. Baltimore printed by Goddard.

We have seldom met with a more peculiar work; every author quoted is either 'great or ingenious;' and almost every name is misspelt. We cannot accuse the printer of all these faults. The substance is neither peculiar nor striking. Dr. Buchanan hints at the use of mercury in typhus, which we should suspect would be injurious; and many parts of the treatment, which are common, he explains with great ostentation and parade. In general, we find nothing new or interesting in the pamphlet.

D I V I N I T Y.

A Dissertation on the Message from John the Baptist to our Saviour; St. Luke vii. 19. With Remarks on the History of his Life and Ministry. The second Edition. By C. W. Batt, A. M. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Cadell.

We examined the first edition of this work in our LXVIth volume, p. 216. Since that time the discovery has been claimed by Mr. Wakefield; and our author tells us that it may be originally found in Dr. Jackson's works, published near the middle of the last century. The conjecture, though a happy one, is not so recondite but that it may have occurred to many different authors. The edition before us is greatly enlarged and improved.

The true Ground and Nature of Spiritual Beauty and Deformity considered and explained, with some important Uses thereof derived, in two Sermons, preached at St. John's Church, Manchester, by the Rev. J. Clowes, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Printed by C. Wheeler, Manchester.

To the spiritualisers of the last century we are not much indebted

debted either for the advancement of true religion or of real knowledge. Mr. Clowes, who goes on almost in their steps, is not more intelligible or instructive; at least we own that we have no idea of the 'form of a spirit;' and we do not think a 'lamb, a dove, or a rose,' beautiful merely 'because they are the representative forms of that beautiful spirit of life, from whence they spring;' or a wolf, bat, or thistle ugly, 'because they are the representative forms in outward nature of a disorderly, monstrous, and ugly life.'

Passages concerning the Lord's Prayer, and its internal Sense. Selected from the Writings of the Hon. Emanuel Swedenborg, Servant of the Lord Jesus Christ. For the Use of the Lord's New Church. 12mo. 1s. Chalklen.

That the resignation inspired by the duty of prayer, and by prayers being offered with a lowly and contrite heart, is one of the great advantages which the devout supplicant reaps from the performance of that duty, may be allowed; but the division of prayers of the lips, of the understanding, and the will, is rather fanciful than solid. The preface is confined to discussions of this kind, and the work itself is a commentary on the Lord's Prayer, collected from the works of the arch-visionary mentioned in the title page.

A Pious Meditation, composed in the last Century, by John Whiston, Esq. Alderman of the City of Bristol. To which is prefixed, some Account of the Author, collected from authentic Records, by G. S. Catcott. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Palmer. Bristol.

Mr. Whiston, from an obscure station, by industry, integrity, and a little good fortune, became mayor of, and representative in parliament for the city of Bristol. He was pious, benevolent, and charitable. His piety is strongly evinced in the Meditation before us; more strongly indeed than his force of mind, or his literary acquisitions; but the last defect we ought not to blame as his fault, but to lament as his misfortune. This is the third edition of the Meditation, and it is reprinted by Mr. Catcott to introduce some particulars of Mr. Whiston's Life.

SLAVE TRADE.

The universal Rights of Humanity asserted, and applied to the State of the suffering Africans. By Philadelphos. 8vo. 1s. Gardner.

This publication is in fact a very long sermon on the slave-trade, from the 24th, 25th, and 26th of the Acts. It contains many serious and forcible arguments on the side of the advocates for the abolition. But the author in the following extract, and in some preceding and subsequent pages, has certainly misled himself, or means to mislead his readers. When he speaks of the Africans who are the objects of the slave trade, he says,

'In former ages, blest with strength of mind to conceive, and

and abilities to cultivate, not merely the more common arts and sciences of which Europeans make their boast, but to investigate those of the most abstruse and complex nature, and elucidate them: in short, their mental faculties have appeared equal, in past ages, if not superior, to those of colder climates; they have produced the most pious and judicious divines, the most sagacious statesmen, the most accomplished and successful generals, the keenest and most penetrating lawyers, the most sage and learned physicians, the most ingenious and skilful mechanics (which occasioned a law about the year 318, or 320, to employ Africans in preference to others, through the wide, extended empire of Rome, for their docility in learning, and their superiority of skill, after instruction, in improving upon mechanical inventions), the most brilliant characters in every walk of life, from the humble citizen to the elevated prince that wields the sceptre.—And this may, in some degree, be explained on rational principles: viz. A climate replete with striking, natural images presented to the imagination and judgment, together with their food; which is adapted, not to burden the body, or darken the mind, but leave the faculties sufficient room to display themselves to advantage. And as they once were eminent for these excellencies, to what can their present failure be ascribed, but a neglect of instruction, a loss of those means of improvement they once happily possessed.

We readily admit all this to be true of some of the inhabitants of Africa, but not of the Negroes, who are the sole subjects of the slave-trade, as well as of this author's discussion. It is the system of M. Volney unreasonably extended, which, even in a more limited sense, we found to be inadmissible. The philosopher must observe with a smile the absurd extremes into which controversial writers run. Whilst this author endeavours to exalt the Negroes above all others of the human race, others have not scrupled to advance that they are only a superior species of monkeys. The truth, as usual, lies between the two extremes.

Observations, occasioned by the Attempts made in England to effect the Abolition of the Slave Trade; shewing the Manner in which Negroes are treated in the British Colonies in the West Indies. By G. Francklyn, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Walter.

Mr. Francklyn has not only answered Mr. Clarkson, but the dean of Middleham; and gives, on the whole, a favourable, in general we believe a just, account of the slaves situation. We say we believe it to be just, because we had occasion many years since to receive more than one account in similar terms, before the party virulence and the heat of contest had contributed to obscure the facts. The following instance, and similar ones we have often hinted at, will show, that the Negro's state cannot be, in general, unhappy:

‘Thousands of Negroes have been made free by their masters

ters in the colonies; and it may, with truth, be asserted, that, notwithstanding many of them were very capable of paying for a passage to any part of Africa they thought proper, scarce a single instance can be produced of any one of them desiring to return to the place of his nativity.

It is pretty well known that the humane attempt to send the vagabond Negroes to Sierra Leone succeeded but indifferently, and ended, *most inhumanly*, in the death of the greater number of these objects.

Commercial Reasons for the Non-Abolition of the Slave Trade, in the West India Islands, by a Planter, and Merchant of many Years Residence in the West Indies. 8vo 6d. Lane.

Some plain and rational arguments against the abolition of the slave-trade, to which our author improperly joins arguments against the emancipation. We do not however perceive any thing new in this little pamphlet; and some assertions will not, we fear, bear the test of examination.

The interesting Narrative of the Life of Olandah Equiano, or Gustavus Vassa, the African, written by himself. Two Vols. 12mo. 5s. Johnson.

We have more than once expressed our incredulity when, in the controversy relating to the slave-trade, facts are represented on either side under the influence of prejudice or interest. Gustavus, in the account of his life, which contains no very uncommon incidents, enlarges on the happiness of the native African, and the miseries of the slave. Each, we believe, to be at least exaggerated; indeed a lad of ten years old could not have experienced many miseries in any country where food is not wanting. At last Gustavus becomes a good Christian and a Methodist. He seems certain that he is in the right road, and we shall not attempt to turn him from it.

N O V E L S.

Belinda; or, the Fair Fugitive, a Novel, by Mrs. C. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Allen.

This Novel is a little fascinating, for it has kept us nearly an hour from better employment, without novelty of sentiment, character, or situation. It is, in effect, the story on which Cibber's comedy, 'Love makes a Man' is founded, or rather the play of Beaumont and Fletcher, from which Cibber stole the first part of his comedy. The pursuit, in consequence of the similarity of names, is the most amusing part of the work. It is dedicated to the duchess of Marlborough, and Mrs. C. tells her a little unaccountably, that this novel is her *right*—but 'what' she 'next produces' she shall deem the—duke's—We presume no inconvenience can ensue, till the nature of the next production be ascertained.

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The Triumph of Friendship: or, the History of Charles Courtney, and Miss Julia Melville. A Novel, by Jane Timbury. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Fox.

Mrs. Timbury's novel is strictly moral; and, though not humorous, is pleasing and interesting. She seems to entertain the truly laudable feminine fondness for matrimony, which is recommended not only by precept but example. Miss Berkeley alone is excepted, probably because she is only mentioned in the story; or because that in a large family a maiden aunt is an useful personage.

The Parson's Wife, a Novel, written by a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Walter.

This is a pleasing, interesting tale, without novelty of sentiment or character, without any artful series of adventures, broad humour, or intrigue. The lady is, however, partial to matrimony, and, with very little exception, puts all characters to bed.

Louisa and Nina, or an Excursion to Yverdon. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

In this French, or rather Swiss story, there is some pathos, some sentiment, and no little affectation of both. Probability is left at a distance, while our modern Sterne indulges in the finer feelings of the heart, without reflecting, that intoxication often succeeds satiety. Louis and Nina form one of the groupes only which are met in this Excursion.

The Castles of Athlin and Dunblayne, an Highland Story. 12mo. 3s. Hookham.

There is some fancy and much romantic imagery in the conduct of this story; but our pleasure would have been more un-mixed had our author preserved better the manners and costume of the Highlands. He seems to be unacquainted with both.

Fanny Vernon; or, the Forlorn Hope, a Tale of Woe. 12mo. 3s. Axtell.

Fanny Vernon cannot alone fill the eye, the mind, or perhaps more properly, the volume: she is accompanied by the Somersetshire Story. Yet we are sorry to see, that talents for what is really natural, interesting, and pathetic, should be driven to such attempts. If the stories are not (long experience has made us suspicious) republications from *Magazines*, or *wamped* up from *elder volumes*, they would deserve our attention, our regard, and our commendation.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Theosophical Essays: or, the Wisdom and Goodness of God, seen and read in the Process and Operations of Vegetative Nature. By Samuel Saunders. Small 8vo. 1s. sewed. Dilly.

Our author, like Mr. Flavel, of famous memory, is full of allegory. Every seed sown represents man in a state of nature,

ture, and every germinating plant his progress in grace. Grafting is also spiritualised, as well as the other employments of the gardener and farmer. After this precious collection of philosophy and religion, we meet with a paraphrastic version of the twenty-third psalm, from the Hebrew text, with notes; and the Will of George Psalmanazer, which has been already printed. The notes on the twenty-third psalm contain some curious mystical criticisms on the Hebrew words.

Appendix to Thoughts on Subscription, by William Frend, M. A.
8vo. 2s. Johnson.

This Appendix consists of the different appeals to the bishop of Ely, visitor of Jesus College, Cambridge, with the answers and reply. The visitor decided against Mr. Frend's being continued a tutor; against his being, in the language of the statutes, *vir discretus*. The preface contains the cant of a sectary, on the terrors which the church feels at a disposition to enquire into its doctrines. All this is totally irrelevant: the fact is dispute is, whether a man who has publicly declared his disbelief of some parts of the thirty-nine articles, and asserts that he can not conscientiously join in the prayers of the church of England, is a proper tutor in a college, where many of the pupils are educated for the church. Certainly not. But we are aware of the reply, for we have been told that it is necessary they should understand the arguments of each side before they can decide; and a tutor of this kind, who may state the arguments, cannot be injurious; for he cannot force their belief. This indeed may be allowed, if the tutor was not confined to students under twenty, when authority may stand in the place of argument, and when at least information and judgment must be limited. Happily (perhaps unhappily) they want not the assistance of a tutor: the press swarms with publications, written with a plausible simplicity, and seductive declamations on the advantages of liberal and free enquiry.

Memoirs and Anecdotes of Philip Thicknesse, late Lieutenant Governor of Land Guard Fort, and unfortunately Father to George Touchet, Baron Audley. 2 Vols. small 8vo. 10s. 6d. Printed for the Author.

The Life of Mr. Thicknesse has been an eventful one. The attack of Dr. Adair has drawn from him an elucidation of some parts of his conduct in his youth, which he has explained very satisfactorily; and this is followed by various other anecdotes. These, partly from their public nature, and partly from the numerous publications of Mr. Thicknesse, are pretty well known; but our author's peculiar and characteristic manner of relating makes them, if not quite new, sufficiently entertaining.



CRITICAL REVIEW.

 For OCTOBER, 1789.

*A Treatise of the Materia Medica. By William Cullen, M. D.
(Concluded, from Vol. LXVII. p. 442.)*

WE shall now return to our very respectable author, and continue our account of the sedatives, by mentioning his remarks on camphor, which is the next medicine in his list. That camphor has obtained this place in the catalogue, seems to have been owing to its botanical affinity, since it is produced from a species of the *laurus*, though many trees and plants of India, and indeed our own peppermint, afford an oil not very different from it. Dr. Cullen gives a short but masterly account of the disputes which have subsisted respecting its power as a stimulus or a sedative. It is undoubtedly a sedative, and one of very extensive and useful application; but the dose in which its sedative powers appear on the body, in *health*, is not well ascertained: we think it must be somewhere between fifteen and twenty-five grains. In disease it is different, for if there is any confidence in repeated observation, this power has been produced by five grains in very low, irritable, nervous fevers, and is lost when the dose rises above fifteen. In mania, it seldom appears till the dose reaches above twenty, and is not remarkably obvious till it has exceeded thirty. In mania, indeed, it has not succeeded with Dr. Cullen; and cases of this kind are so few in general, regular, practice, that we are afraid of speaking on the subject. There can be no danger, however, in saying the remedy does not appear to us to be generally useful in such cases; and where it is so, the utility is obvious before it reaches to very high doses: if twenty or twenty-five grains afford no relief, thirty-five or forty will probably afford none; but if a slight benefit is derived from the first, great advantages usually follow the second. In fevers, where it is useful, that is in low nervous fevers, it is seldom we have found necessary to give more than ten, or at most fifteen grains. With opium it usually answers well, and we have often had reason to confirm M. Laffone's experience of their united powers. In glysters we believe it has never been given in this country.

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In malignant fevers it is undoubtedly of use with the Peruvian bark, and of remarkable utility when a fever of this kind is combined with local inflammation. Dr. Cullen thinks it of service in confluent small-pox, and in bringing back repelled exanthemata: in hysseric and hypochondriac cases also, he has found it useful. With nitre, and more probably with vinegar, its powers are greater. Its discutient effects are well known, and Dr. Cullen has given a very striking and pointed instance of them :

‘ I have mentioned above, that several practitioners have employed camphire in the most acute inflammatory diseases; and therefore we are not surprised to find that it has been given also internally in cases of acute rheumatism; and it is said to have been with advantage. We have no experience of it, because we have found another method of cure generally successful; but I take this occasion to mention its external use, as often of great service in removing the rheumatic pains of the joints or muscles. This we have often experienced, and have no doubt of camphire having a peculiar power in taking off the inflammatory state in cases both of rheumatism and gout. In the case of rheumatism it is a matter of common experience: in the case of gout it is more rare; but I have had the following particular example of it. A gentleman had brought from the East Indies an oil of camphire, a native substance, which seemed, by its smell and taste, to be no other than camphire in that form, and which I perceive to be mentioned by naturalists as a native substance, produced by several trees in the East Indies. This the person possessed of recommended to all his acquaintances as an infallible remedy for gout and rheumatism; and a gentleman who had often laboured under the gout, and then felt the pains of it unusually severe, was persuaded to apply it. He had then the gout exceedingly painful in the ball of the great toe and instep of one foot. On this part he rubbed a quantity of the oil of camphire; and in about half an hour or a little more he was entirely freed from the pain he had before. In less, however, than an hour after, he had a pain and inflammation come upon the same part of the other foot. As the pain here became pretty severe, he again employed the oil of camphire, and with the same effect of soon relieving the pain very entirely. The consequence of this was also the same; for in less than an hour the pain and inflammation returned to the foot that had been first affected: and here again our patient, obstinate in persisting in the trial of his remedy, again applied the oil, and he had the same success as before in relieving the part affected, and with the same effect also of occasioning a translocation. But here the translocation being made to the knee, the patient obtained from any farther application of the oil, and suffered the pain of the knee to remain for a day or two, and till it went off by some swelling and desquamation in the usual manner.’

Campho-

Camphor has been said to correct the power of drastic purgatives ; but in this, it is not, probably, more effectual than any other oil, or, what is very convenient, soap.

Tea is the next sedative which our author mentions ; and he thinks the leaves in all their different states are narcotic ; but the fresh leaves and the high-scented teas most so. This is certainly a fact, and its exhilarating power arises from its taking off irritability.

Of crocus, Dr. Cullen seems to labour to say something favourable, but we can catch no hint that we can detail. The nymphaea is, he owns, useless. The list is closed by an account of wine and alcohol, which are indirectly stimulant, and chiefly employed for that purpose. Yet, when we mix a small proportion of brandy with water as a collyrium, we must have in view some sedative power, unless we depend on its incidental impregnation from the oak of the cask.

Refrigerants form an order of the class of sedatives. Our author styles them sedatives of the sanguiferous system, since he thinks they only depress preternatural heat, which is always attended with increased action of the heart and arteries. But in this distinction he sacrifices facts to system, for the natural heat can be depressed by acids, by nitre, and by cold water, though probably not without depressing the quickness of the pulse also. These do not, in Dr. Cullen's opinion, act as bodies actually cold, because a few of these, in solution, generate heat ; but he seems to adopt a doctrine of some curiosity, though one that seems to us to rest on a doubtful foundation.

‘ We assume (says he), from Mr. Needham, what we think he has demonstrated in fact, that there is every where in nature an expansive force and a resisting power ; and that particularly under a certain degree of heat, the expansive power appears in all the parts of organised bodies, in consequence of which they show a singular vegetating power ; while at the same time in other bodies, there is a power resisting and preventing the action of this vegetating power, and at least of diminishing its force. See *Nouvelles Observations Microscopiques* 1750, p. 229, 230.

‘ This resisting power he actually found in those saline bodies which we commonly suppose to be refrigerant powers with respect to the living body ; and we hope that this doctrine may be applied to our purpose in the following manner. As heat is the great support of expansive force, so we suppose that every increase of heat is no other than an increase of the expansive force in the heated parts ; and from this we conceive it may be understood how resisting powers may diminish any preternatural expansive force and heat in our bodies.

'We thus endeavour to account for the refrigerant power of saline bodies; and the doctrine seems to be illustrated and further confirmed by this, that besides organised bodies, there seems to be an expansive force in all bodies disposed to any fermentation. This seems always to begin by an expansion of air from a fixed to an elastic state; and it is very certain in fact, that by the contiguity of a sufficient quantity of saline substances, that is of resisting power, the beginning of every fermentation is prevented. Such resisting powers have been often taken notice of as antiseptic: but there is hardly any doubt that the more general term of antizymic may be fairly applied to them.'

The professor is aware of all the difficulties of the doctrine, and seems occasionally to refer the power to actual cold. It is probably owing to the affinity of these bodies to the matter of heat, which they detract from the body, and become sedatives only in a secondary way. The refrigerant power of different bodies is not very inconsistent with Bergman's table of specific heats, but we have no room for the comparison.

The first of the particular refrigerants are acids, but under this class Dr. Cullen treats of the fossil acids, which are not refrigerants. He next proceeds to the vegetable acids, and among these mentions tar-water, which, for many satisfactory reasons, he thinks is useful only so far as it is a vegetable acid. Vinegar is also treated of at some length, and its use in obviating obesity accounted for. A singular case is, however, mentioned of a gentleman losing his fat by abstaining from wine, and recovering it by returning to that liquor. Many other circumstances, however, besides its containing a latent vegetable acid, might have contributed to that effect; it is not, therefore, contradictory to the other facts. The acid of milk, Dr. Cullen thinks a different one from the acid of sugar, and it is, probably, some peculiar form of the phosphoric acid. Of the neutrals, nothing peculiarly new or important is said: Dr. Cullen considers all the neutrals, except the sea-salt, as refrigerants.

The next class treated of, is the antispasmodica, a collection of medicines little understood, and, we suspect, improperly associated. They must, however, remain by themselves till their nature is better explained. Dr. Cullen endeavours to show that the alternations of contraction and relaxation, or the more continued contractions, to which the name of spasmodic diseases is assigned, consist in a change in the nervous power, chiefly directed to particular parts, according to their degree of mobility, or some more uncertain state. This change in the brain is often an increase, sometimes a defect,
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or occasionally a sudden alteration in the order or the celerity of its motions, while antispasmodic medicines are of various kinds adapted to obviate one or other of these affections. Some medicines act as antispasmodics by obviating the mobility; and some of apparently different powers, by altering the original state which gave occasion to these irregular motions. Opium, a very powerful antispasmodic, our author has treated of elsewhere; but he goes on to observe that, in consequence of the different causes and circumstances producing spasm, the volatile salts, and the most active stimulants, frequently deserve the title of antispasmodics. Fœtids, on the other hand, are of a sedative kind, but something may probably be owing to their peculiar odour, since the odour alone is often very serviceable. Highly volatile oils may be useful in the same way, but our author thinks that they also give a tone and steadiness to the nervous system. The antispasmodic power of empyreumatic oils is nearly connected with their volatility.

The particular antispasmodics are next examined; but in a list so copious, and which gives occasion to so many remarks, we can only give what is most striking, and most peculiarly our author's own. The salt of amber differs little, in Dr. Cullen's opinion, from any other vegetable acid; and the oil is useful in proportion to its being highly rectified. In the London Dispensatory, it is said not to be brought to a sufficient degree of tenuity, and the empyreumatic oils are left equally inert, for empyreumatic oils are said to be as powerful when procured from vegetables, as when drawn from animal substances. The atriplex fœtida, the professor thinks, is often an useful medicine, and the assa fœtida more useful and powerful, as an expectorant, than the ammoniacum, which is represented as too heating and of less virtue in exciting the action of the vessels of the bronchial glands. The valerian, our author thinks, should be given in larger doses, and he recommends a tincture with a double quantity of the root, while the powers of the menstruum are assisted (at the expence perhaps of elegance) by expression. Musk, Dr. Cullen tells us, is a very valuable medicine in many instances of spasm, as well as in retrocedent and misplaced gout; but it is often unequal in its qualities. He judges of it by its odour, and when in an imperfect state, he thinks no difference of dose will compensate for its imperfection.

The medicines which act on the fluids are the next object of attention, and our author explains so much of the chemical doctrine which influences the changes in the state of fluids as is required: we mean what relates to the union and separation of the different ingredients of the mixt. His chief object

seems to be to show, that when a considerable change is made by a disproportionate addition, it must result from the bodies acting on the nerves, or as a ferment.

The first class is the diluentia, which is taken strictly; for the medicines which affect the chemical mixture are in the next class, the attenuantia. Water is the only medicine of this kind; and our author traces its effects from the alimentary canal, till he finds it diluting the halitus or interstitial fluid, and contributing to the cure of scrophula. The attenuantia afford nothing very interesting, except that our author is willing to allow them little power. Soap he represents as chiefly useful from its antacid and laxative qualities. Sugar he is scarcely willing to admit as an attenuant, and honey he considers as little different from sugar. Its powers in curing asthma, he thinks, are doubtful, at least not greatly different from as much saccharine matter. Inspissants, in Dr. Cullen's opinion, are of much more uncertain efficacy.

Demulcents have no very great or powerful effect beyond the fauces and epiglottis; yet even the professor admits their use in diarrhoeas. Perhaps they reach the bowels sometimes unchanged, and chalk-julep is certainly assisted in its powers by the gum arabic. Dr. Cullen does not think that they have any effect on the urinary organs; but if, as we suspect, gum arabic in large quantities lessens the quantity of urine, it probably arrives at the urinary organs unchanged. This quality, however, renders it less fit for relieving the ardor urinæ; and it is very probable, that it is useful only when largely diluted: in that case, as much benefit may be derived from the menstruum as from the gum.

Antacids are, in our author's opinion, generally local in their effects, except in calculous cases, when they chiefly act as absorbents. He prefers the aerated alkali, and thinks the chalk an astringent only, so far as it is antacid.

The antakalines are spoken of very shortly: in fact, we are only told that no separate alkali exists in the blood-vessels; but as alkaline matters are sometimes in the stomach, a short account of the different medicines might have been added. The next class, antiseptics, may, however, supply this defect. In the introduction, our author distinguishes the acute septicity in fevers, from the chronic kind in scurvy; and he points out a singular instance of a seemingly chronic scurvy, that is unattended with fever, coming on hastily, and being succeeded by putrid fever, which proved fatal in a very few days. In the scurvy, those antiseptics which make a part of the diet, are proper, since the fluids are wholly depraved, and preternaturally saline. Those who believe in Dr. Stark's experiments, will

will not readily admit the following reasoning: indeed Dr. Cullen furnishes a solution of the difficulty, for there is nearly the same difference between the action of malt and sugar, as between acid fruits and the fossil acids, according to our author's explanation.

‘As I am persuaded that the most certain means of obviating scurvy is by filling the blood-vessels with acedescant matter, so I long ago gave my opinion, that sugar and honey, much employed in diet, might be a means of preventing the disease; and my opinion on this subject gave the first hint to Dr. Macbride for his proposing the employment of malt. I am not indeed certain that sugar, in its purely saline state, will so readily enter into the composition of the animal fluid as a farinaceous matter, which, besides sugar, contains a quantity of other alimentary substance; but I still maintain, that the infusion of malt, which has been found to be so salutary, has its virtues chiefly depending upon the sugar it contains.’

The list of antiseptics is taken from experiments made out of the body; it is too long, and the power of many of these is limited by their stimulant properties.

The evacnants are, 1st. the errhines, of which Dr. Cullen prefers the asarum, and is of opinion, that it is too much clogged in the London Pharmacopœia by other ingredients. Of the sialagogues mercury is the chief, and Dr. Cullen's account of it is full, masterly, and original.

Mercury, he thinks, does not act by increasing the tenuity of the blood; but he owns that its effects in scurvy seem to show that it produces some change in the vital fluid. Its mechanical operation has been long deserted. Our author considers it as a very general stimulus, and contends, that some appearances of its activity may be traced in every excretory: why it particularly affects the salivary glands is shown in the following words:

‘I suppose that mercury has a particular disposition to unite with ammoniacal salts; and an ammoniacal salt increasing the solubility of corrosive sublimate is to me strongly in proof of this. In illustration of it, I would observe, that the union of mercury with the ammoniacal salt of the ferosity, explains well why mercury is so much disposed, and more universally than any other substance we know of, to pass off by the various excretories of the body. At the same time, if we can allow, what is very probable, that ammoniacal salts pass off by the salivary glands more copiously than by any other excretion, we shall find a reason why mercury, associated with such ammoniacal salt, will readily pass to the salivary glands; and being thus applied to their excretories, will produce the salivation that so readily happens.’

He then proves that the factor of the breath during salivation is in no respect connected with the putrescent state of the system. To the infectious matter of the venereal disease, the professor does not think mercury an antidote. He relates, however, a fact, where the discharge from a chancre, mixed with the gummy solution of Plenck's powder, was found on trial to be innocent: but Dr. Cullen justly remarks, that the fact is not so minutely related as to enable us to draw any conclusion from it; and at least, that the viscidness of the gum may have had the chief effect in blunting the acrimony of the poison. If mercury also cures venereal ulcers by topical application, copper and other metallic preparations will do the same. On the whole, he concludes that its efficacy is owing to its evacuating power, and its peculiar efficacy in syphilis, to its being a more general, a more steady and constant stimulus than any other medicine. The most active preparations are the best, and from the view of its being so generally stimulant, so universally an evacuant and deobstruent, our author thinks its very extensive utility in medicine may be explained and accounted for.

Expectorants are a class of doubtful efficacy and uncertain application. The theory is at least obscure, and in our author's view clogged with difficulties and narrowed by exceptions. If we look at the theory alone, we shall not greatly differ; and if we proceed to practice, we shall find much uncertainty in the effects of the best established medicines. When the mucus of the bronchiæ is viscid and stagnating, vomiting is, in our author's opinion, the only remedy; but if there are bodies which will increase the quantity, and of course the fluidity of the mucus, by increasing the vis a tergo, this fluid matter may be evacuated: these are what he calls more strictly expectorants. Independent of this explanation, without any particular change on the mucus, the stimulus of heat and of volatile alkali have the same effect; and, as in some other instances the professor seems to walk in the fetters of rigid system. He concludes, however, in his more strict views, that the halitus from the lungs may be increased, as other excrementitious evacuations are, by internal medicines. Of the particular expectorants, our author's favourite is the squill, and he supposes its action on the kidneys the surest mark of its being present in an active state in the system.

Emetics is a class of great importance; but it has, perhaps, been so often treated of, that it is not easy to offer any thing new. The professor speaks of its effects in hæmoptysis, and remarks what we can confirm, that it frequently checks the bleeding, either by determining to the surface, or by the

constriction which nausea produces on the vessels. Dr. Cullen leans a little on the latter opinion, and thinks it confirmed by the effects which nauseating medicines have in *mænorrhœa*. It is, probably, confirmed particularly by the effects of blue vitriol, than which no medicine leaves a longer nausea, or is less apt, in moderate doses, to bring on vomiting. We are much surprised, however, to find the power of emetics in promoting the action of the absorbents omitted. The use of *ipêcacuanha* in dysenteries is attributed to its laxative effects, and this medicine is said to be less adapted than almost any other, to keep up a nausea, since it so readily excites vomiting. The emetic power of the *erigerum*, applied externally, we have more than once seen. Antimony may, in the professor's opinion, supply all the purposes of *ipêcacuanha*; but we have always found it more unmanageable, variable in its effects, and inconvenient. The kermes mineral he thinks a valuable medicine, and superior to *sulphurauratum*: the *calx antimon. nitrata* he considers as very analogous to James's powder. If a little allowance be made for a predilection in favour of this medicine, the whole which relates to antimony is excellent.

Cathartics are divided into those which, though they stimulate not only the vessels but the moving fibres of the stomach, yet do not produce inflammation even when the dose be increased: and those whose stimulus is of the inflammatory kind, in other words, laxatives and purgatives; the instances are Glauber's salt and jalap. What relates to the laxatives is in general well known: our author supposes that soap is laxative chiefly from its common salt; and when its laxative power is so great as to limit its use as a lithontriptic, it may be destroyed by dissolving the soap in spirit of wine, by which the salt is separated. Aloes, our author thinks, is one of the most useful of the purgatives, and that it produces all its effects in very small doses. The additions to it in many of the officinals are useless or injurious. Dr. Cullen speaks of the purgative powers of the *genista*, or rather the tops of the broom, half an ounce of which is boiled in a pound of water, till half is consumed, and an ounce is given every hour till it operates, or the whole has been taken: it is said to discharge much water. Gamboge too, given in small doses frequently repeated, has a similar effect. The resin of jalap, triturated with crystals of tartar, or even sugar, is often a mild and convenient purgative: combined with soap, we have found it equally advantageous. Colocynth our author seems averse to; but the *pil. è colocynth. com aloë*, notwithstanding all minuter remarks, is an excellent medicine.

Diuretics

Diuretics act chiefly by draining of the watery and the saline parts of the blood; and the increase of the watery parts of this fluid is the surest method of exciting the action of the kidneys. On this account, our author would not enjoin an abstinence from fluids in dropsy; he would indeed rather recommend mild, agreeable, diuretic drinks, as the action of diuretics seem to depend much on the water by which they are conveyed. Whatever may become of the theory, the fact, we believe, is well established. The evacuation of the saline matters renders diuretics, he thinks, so useful in scurvy. In the remarks on digitalis, it is insinuated that medicines may become diuretics by a general action on the stomach; and in those on turpentine, that, like benzoin, they may operate on the kidneys in consequence of their acidity. The professor doubts whether cantharides have any real action on the kidney, for their stimulus, he thinks, is chiefly confined to the neck of the bladder; and indeed in many trials, we have not found any very decided diuretic effects, though we have sometimes raised the dose very high, in following Dr. Mead's advice, and attempting by their use to cure lepra. We have known one hundred and twenty drops of the tincture given at a dose, and repeated three times a day. When a person could bear more than eighty drops, the remedy has been of service, particularly in cutaneous diseases of the moist tettery kind in old people. The dose, as may be presumed, must be increased gradually from a very moderate one, for twenty drops will often produce disagreeable effects.

Dr. Cullen thinks that perspiration is really an exhalation, and that there are no secretory organs to be acted on. Diaphoretics are, therefore, either powers which excite the circulation in general, or, by exciting the action of the vessels of the stomach, produce by sympathy the same effect. The account of particular medicines furnishes nothing so very interesting as to induce us to extend our already too copious article. The menagoga, that faithless class which every practitioner tries and distrusts, is examined shortly, without the occurrence of any thing very new or useful.

From our extensive account of this work, it must be obvious, that Dr. Cullen's system differs in its form and in its substance from the general treatises which have appeared under a similar title. We have had occasion to style it the philosophy of the materia medica; and indeed not only the general doctrines of therapeutics, but of diseases, so far as they influence the employment of medicines, are detailed. The last, at least, must be allowed to be essential; and their omission

sion is the greatest defect in the best systems: but the former, though often useful, has been, we think, injurious; for, as we have hinted, it has sometimes fixed the most inconvenient fetters on our author's future progress, and we fear has given some adventitious colouring to his facts. Through all the work there is much doubt, much uncertainty, and no little distrust of former accounts; effects which we have already hinted at and explained: we think it is not easy for a veteran in practice to be sanguine or credulous; for every dictate of experience teaches us to forget what has been sometimes boasted, and in part to unlearn what has been confidently taught. In other respects this work is truly valuable; and, if we were to conduct the education of a student, we would interpose between the general doctrines and the particular accounts, some valuable treatise, as those of Dr. Lewis or Dr. Murray; while, at the end of each article, we added Dr. Cullen's observations on each medicine, which often sum up the evidence in a manner at once just, original, and excellent.

Transactions of the Society instituted at London for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year 1789. Vol. VII. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Doddsley.

WE always turn with pleasure to the Transactions of this respectable Society, since we are convinced that their motives are pure and laudable, their exertions well directed, and frequently beneficial: another century will, we doubt not, derive no inconsiderable advantages from them.

Agriculture is, as usual, their first object, and we perceive very considerable plantations have been made in Staffordshire, by Mr. Sneyd, and in Westmoreland, by the bishop of Landaff. The former planted, between October 1784 and May 1786, 132,212 forest trees, of which 24,000 were oak. Mr. Jones informs the Society, that the wood of the Spanish chestnut tree is much more durable than oak, when exposed to the weather; and that it is often beautifully veined, and, when stained, is equal to the finest mahogany. Mr. Boote, of Atherston upon Stower, has continued his comparative experiments on drilling and broad-cast. He still finds the advantages in favour of the former, even upon a cold stiff clay; but his broad-cast is hand-hoed; and, in the drill husbandry, he greatly prefers Mr. Cooke's horse-hoe. Lord Fife finds the mangel wurtzel very much inferior to the praises lavished on it, and even to common turneps.

The gold medal has been adjudged to Mr. Ball, surgeon of Williton,

Williton, for having raised in the last year above 400 plants of the rheum palmatum. We hope that he will not risk his own profit, and the credit of the English rhubarb, by taking it up prematurely. It should at least be eight years old, and probably would be better at the end of ten or twelve years. Mr. Stephenson had the silver medal, since his account did not fully answer the conditions for which the gold medal was offered, for his description of the improvement of waste moor land; but the most important communication, in this way, is the description of the draining of Martin Meer, by which 3632 acres of land have been gained and protected from the sea. Mr. Drummond gives a very pleasing account of the growth of larches, and thinks that in a few years we may be supplied with deal from the trees of our own country. A disease among the cattle at Standish, in Lancashire, seems to be a putrid pleurisy: it was very fatal, and resisted every remedy. We shall transcribe the account of the method which seemed most serviceable. It is a very violent one, and, we suppose, would not have been administered if the constitution of cows had not been very well known:

‘On examining the remaining stock, the languid movement, dejected countenance, and a small discharge of mucus from the nostrils of three cows, gave reason to suppose they were infected.—Two drachms of emetic tartar, a scruple of calomel, and ten grains of powdered opium, were immediately given to each. In the space of two hours they appeared to be much deranged, trembled excessively, and perspired copiously: these appearances were soon followed by violent purging. Twelve hours after, an ounce of bark, with two drachms of camphor, and the same quantity of laudanum, were administered in a quart of strong ale.—Quick-lime was thrown into the pond from which they drank.—The next morning they appeared more sprightly, but marks of the disease were still observable, particularly in one.—This medicine (the bark and camphor) was repeated every twelve hours.’

Sir Joseph Banks informs the Society, that the mercurial ointment, a preparation not unlike the unguentum cæruleum, is a pretty certain cure for the scab and the sheep-fagg.—This department of the volume is concluded by some farther account of the advantages of the *conserva rivularis*, as a manure, by Mr. Wagstaff.

In the department of Polite Arts, there is a description of a pocket memorandum-book, for the use of persons born blind; it is not very intelligible; but it depends, like a contrivance formerly mentioned, on using pins, with heads of different shapes.

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In the Manufactures, we have an account of paper manufactured from withen bark, by Mr. Greaves, who has consequently received the premium of ten guineas for making paper from raw vegetable matter; and it appears probable, from the calculation subjoined, that it may supersede the use of rags in press paper, and of ropes in making pasteboard. Mr. Davis seems greatly to have improved the colouring of marbled paper. We think it would be very satisfactory to the subscribers, if specimens of this kind were bound up with the annual volume.

Mr. Swayne gives a good account of his management of silkworms. His apparatus is a neat and convenient one; and he prefers the white mulberry leaf; but the trees of this kind, though earlier, are sometimes preyed on by earwigs. Perhaps the difference between the white and black mulberry-tree is not considerable. He has illustrated one part of this little worm's economy very satisfactorily:

'I was willing to save the chrysalides contained in them, for breeding; and that they might not be at all injured, I thought it most advisable to suffer them to remain in their silken tombs, and to make their way out thence in the method they are taught by nature: this method, I believe, is constantly termed, eating their way out.

'The term is improper; they are so far from eating their way out, that I have reason to believe, when the silk is of its due strength, they never interrupt the continuance of the thread. As soon as the moth has burst from the shell of the chrysalis, and is fully formed, it ejects from its mouth a liquid, which, being absorbed by that part of the cocoon opposite, dissolves the natural gluten by which the threads were made to adhere together; when the insect, with its hooked feet, draws the thread aside: by this means, and butting its head forward, it gradually makes an opening, sufficient to force itself through. The elasticity of the silk, as the moths creep through, has the effect of pressing out a kind of red meconium, no doubt greatly to their advantage, since I have observed that those which have been taken out of the cocoons before their last metamorphosis, have got rid of it with much difficulty.'

It afterwards appeared that he could unravel the whole cocoon, without finding the continuity of the thread at all interrupted. The chrysalis, he thinks, may be killed in the cocoon, by the heat of boiling water alone. The worms do not appear less hardy than many other kinds of the insects lepidoptera; and may, in his opinion, be advantageously nourished in this kingdom. We have already observed, that we are enforcing a practice, which is foreign to our habits and our soil, as well as that the same pains and the same capitals may be employed in attempts more congenial to both. Mr. Swayne's re-

marks have undoubtedly lessened the force of this opinion, though they have not wholly destroyed it.

Miss Ives's spinning with a spindle and whirl is very extraordinary. With a pound of wool, sent her from Sir Joseph Banks, from a mixed breed of his Lincolnshire and Spanish sheep, she spun 194 skains: each skain contains 560 yards; and of course the pound was spun to the length of sixty-one miles and three quarters ($61 \frac{3}{4}$). She has since spun the pound into 209 skains. She hopes to be able to make a shawl of a yard and half wide, which shall weigh only two ounces. She has brought her spinning since to 256 skains in the pound, equal to 81 miles 80 yards in length. It equals, Mr. Harvey of Norwich thinks, the thread of the Thibet and Cashmere shawls, but is not so soft and silky. He finds that the finest part of a Norfolk fleece, culled of sufficient length, is full as soft as the long staple of the Spanish, and is superior in whiteness of colour. The large Lincolnshire, marsh-fed sheep, he tells us, brought into Norfolk and fed upon dry heaths, will, in four or five years, completely change their breed, and produce wool exactly like the native Norfolk sheep. The Thibet sheep, which live, we have seen, in a cold country, though in lat. 30° , produce a wool that is long, silky, and as soft as Eider-down.

Among the papers on Mechanics, we have some satisfactory accounts of the utility of the gun-harpoon, as killing at a greater distance, and with more certainty than the hand-harpoon. There is a description also and a plate of a machine for twitching wool, a method necessary for separating its fibres and preparing it for the carder and spinner: it is usually done by beating. A plate of a very useful machine, called the road-harrow, invented by Mr. Harriott, for which he received the bounty of ten guineas; and an admirable succedaneum for a rudder, when it has been unshipped in a storm, by Captain Packenham, follow. The last is made from materials which occur in every ship.

In the department of Colonies and Trade, we have very pleasing information of the flourishing state of the cinnamon-tree in Jamaica. The mangosteen also is said to thrive very well, and will produce an immense crop of mangos this year.

An account of the rewards adjudged by, and presents made to the Society; a list of the officers and chairmen of the several committees, are next subjoined. In the List of Premiums we find some new objects, and others which are resumed. We shall select those which appear most interesting:

' No. 104. *Stall-feeding Horses with green Vegetables.*—To the person who shall keep the greatest number of horses, not fewer

fewer than four, in the stall or stable, during the greatest number of months in the year, on carrots, potatoes, lucern, saint-foin, clover, vetches, or any other green vegetable food raised on land in his own possession; the silver medal and ten guineas.

‘It is required that the number of horses so fed, the quantity of land employed in raising the green vegetable food, the quantity of hay and corn (if any) consumed, the state and condition of the horses, and an account of the work done by them, be fully and particularly specified.

‘The accounts and certificates to be produced to the Society on or before the second Tuesday in February, 1790.’

The following is resumed:

‘No. 152. *Refining Fish Oil*.—For disclosing to the Society an effectual method of purifying fish oil from the glutinous matter that encrusts the wicks of lamps, and extinguishes the light, though fully supplied with oil, the gold medal, or fifty guineas.

‘It is required that the whole of the process be fully and fairly disclosed, in order that satisfactory experiments may be made by the Society to determine the validity of the claim; and that certificates that not less than twenty gallons have been purified according to the process delivered in, must, together with two gallons of the oil in its unpurified state, and two gallons so refined, be produced to the Society on or before the second Tuesday in February, 1790.

‘The same premium is extended one year further.

‘Certificates and samples to be produced on or before the second Tuesday in February, 1791.’

The next appears to be now first offered:

‘No. 164. *Refining Black Tin*.—To the person who shall discover to the Society the best method of purifying or refining *Black Tin*, in such manner as to render it fit for the finer purposes to which *Grain Tin* is now solely applied, the gold medal, or fifty pounds.

‘Certificates that not less than three tons have been refined or purified, with a full detail of the process, and a quantity, not less than one hundred weight, of the tin so refined, to be produced to the Society on or before the first Tuesday in November, 1790.’

A premium for importing cinnamon, the produce of our West India islands, not less than twenty pounds, is also added: the reward is fixed at fifty pounds. The conveying the bread-fruit tree, in a growing state, to our West India islands, is to be rewarded with the gold medal. This very advantageous vegetable is, we suspect, by this time on its passage.—Since writing this Article, we have heard that it is very nearly arrived, and the plants are in pretty good order.

The Four Gospels, translated from the Greek. With preliminary Dissertations, and Notes Critical and Explanatory. By George Campbell, D. D. F. R. S. Edinburgh. In 2 Vols. (Concluded, from Vol. LXXVII. p. 409.)

AS we have given a sufficiently full account of the form of the work, and of Dr. Campbell's general plan, we shall, without farther preface, proceed to the second volume, which contains the translation and the notes.

Saint Matthew's Gospel was very probably written in the Hebrew language; but it was so soon translated into Greek, that the Hebrew was confined only to a few of the Jewish converts, and imperceptibly disappeared. The Greek may be styled the original, for the earliest accounts which we have make no complaints of accidental errors, or more studied perversions; and its general coincidence with the scope and tenour of the other Gospels, shew that, if the present version is not the original, it is not inferior to it. On these accounts we are unwilling to engage in the controversy which has been raised, respecting the language in which this Gospel was originally written: if it was translated, as some commentators have supposed, by James, the brother of our Lord, its authority will have additional weight: it pretty certainly existed in the Greek language previous to the corruptions of the Ebionites. St. Matthew's Gospel was the earliest of the four, probably written in the sixty-first year after Christ's death, while Paul was preaching the Gospel at Rome, on his first visit to the capital, for it was prior to the Gospel of St. Luke, which, with its continuation, the Acts of the Apostles, was finished before the apostle's second journey. Dr. Campbell engages in a curious and entertaining disquisition, respecting the peculiar dialect in which this Gospel was written. We have said it was Hebrew, but it was not the Hebrew of the Old Testament, and the language of the Prophets seem never to have been distinguished by this appellation, which means only, *beyond the river*, as the Italians still distinguish what is beyond the mountains, by a particular term, *tramontane*. The language of Palestine, at that time, has been called by Jerome, Syrochaldaic, which in reality it was; but the source of this language must be traced more accurately.

Abram, it is said, was called the Hebrew, as dwelling beyond the river—*Transuphratenfis*; and the word is suitably rendered by the LXX, ὁ ἑβραῖος. His language, that of Ur, must have been Chaldean, but it was lost by his residence in the Land of Canaan; and his descendants seem to have adopted the language of that district: this language we call Hebrew;

brew; and Dr. Campbell thinks, with Bochart, Walton, and Le Clerc, that it was the ancient Phœnician: Canaan, with its derivatives, is rendered by the LXX. Phœnicia, with its correspondent appellations. The language of Canaan was, however, corrupted during the captivity, by the Chaldean, or Syrian language; for they are supposed by our author to be the same, and this corrupted language was styled by the Jews Hebrew; it is, in fact, Syro Chaldaic, blended with former Canaanitish, or Phœnician idiom. After the destruction of Jerusalem, it became more nearly Syriac; though, in the time of our Lord, it differed considerably from it. That the Greek is a version in our author's opinion, is supported by Matth. v. 22. where *raca* is left unexplained, and where *moreh* would have been equally without interpretation, if its similarity with *μωρῆ*, *fool*, in the Greek character, had not led the translators to give it that interpretation. Dr. Campbell interprets *raca*, *fool*, and *moreh* he renders *miscreant*.

Dr. Campbell supposes, and indeed it is founded, as he observes, on historical evidence, that St. Matthew's Gospel was intended for the use of the Jews; and to recommend the doctrines of Christ to them, he deduced his lineage from David, as it was prophesied that the Messiah should come from the king of Israel. As the two first chapters have been considered as interpolations, we shall extract from the notes our author's arguments in support of his opinion:

‘It is proper to observe that, in the Heb. exemplar of this Gospel which was used by the Ebionites, and called *The Gospel according to the Hebrews*, the two first chapters were wanting:—the book began in this manner, *It happened, in the Days of Herod king of Judea, that John came baptizing, with the baptism of reformation, in the river Jordan. He was said to be of the race of Aaron the priest, and son of Zacharia, and Elizabeth.* But for this reading, and the rejection of the two chapters, there is not one concurrent testimony from MSS. versions, or ancient authors. It is true the Alexandrian MS. has not the two chapters; but this is no authority for rejecting them, as that copy is mutilated, and contains but a very small fragment of Matthew's Gospel. No fewer than the twenty-four first chapters are wanting, and the copy begins with the verb *ερχεται*, *cometh*, in the middle of a sentence, ch. xxv. 6. By a like mutilation, though much less considerable, the first ninety verses of the first chapter are wanting in the Cambridge MS. which also begins in the middle of a sentence, with the verb *παραλαβειν*, *to take home*. And in the Gothic version all is wanting before the middle of the fifteenth verse of ch. v. It begins likewise in the middle of a sentence, with the words answering to *επι του λογιου*. Now if we abstract from these, which prove nothing, but that the words they begin with were preceded by

something now lost; there is a perfect harmony in the testimonies, both of MSS. and of versions, in favour of the two chapters. The old Italic translation and the Syriac were probably made before the name *Ebionite* was known in the church. Even so early a writer as Irenæus, in the fragment formerly quoted (Pref. sect. 7.), takes notice that Matthew began his history with the genealogy of Jesus. That the Nazarenes, who also used a Heb. exemplar of this gospel, had the two chapters, is probable, as Epiphanius calls their copy very full, *πληγὰν*, though, it must be owned, he immediately after expresses some doubt of their retaining the pedigree. Simon thinks it probable that they did retain it, as he learns from Epiphanius that Carpocras and Cerinthus, whose notions pretty much coincided with theirs, retained it, and even used it in arguing against their adversaries. I might add to the testimony of versions, MSS. and ancient authors, the internal evidence we have of the vitiation of the Ebionite exemplar, the only copy that is charged with this defect, from the very nature of the additions and alterations it contains.*

St. Mark's Gospel seems to have been written about two years after that of St. Matthew. Papias tells us explicitly, from the authority of John the Presbyter, that it was written from the information of Peter, for Mark was not a follower of our Lord. Irenæus gives the same account, and informs us, that it was written after the departure (*ἀφ' οὗ*) of Peter and Paul from Rome. The word, as it sometimes signifies death, has occasioned much unmeaning criticism; but it is certain that Mark's Gospel was prior to St. Luke's, which was as certainly written in the life-time of Paul. This Evangelist was not, in Dr. Campbell's opinion, the nephew of Barnabas, who followed his uncle after his separation from Paul, in consequence of their disagreement, but the disciple of Peter, mentioned in his first Epistle (v. 13.) His Gospel was written, it is supposed, in Greek, for the use of the Romans; nor is this, as cardinal Baronius thinks, a contradiction, for Paul wrote his Epistle to the Romans in this language, and it was undoubtedly the classical language of the Gospel. The opinion, that Mark only abridged the Gospel of Matthew, is now, we believe, given up, for some of his accounts are fuller than those of Matthew; yet the resemblance is so great in a few passages, and in many words, that we suspect, with Grotius, Mark had seen his predecessor's work, and employed often his phraseology; or at least, that the translator of Matthew had seen the narrative of Mark. As the latter seems to have been compiled from Peter's information, probably during the residence at Rome, before any translation of Matthew existed, the last may appear the most probable supposition. Calvin was convinced that Mark had
never

never seen the Gospel of Matthew; and our own Dodwell, perhaps from his peculiar system, was positive that the later Evangelists were not acquainted with what the former had done. This is, however, scarcely more probable than the miraculous similitude of the versions of seventy translators, confined in seventy different rooms. Dr. Campbell supposes that this Evangelist was by birth and education a Jew; but knowing for whom he wrote, was unusually careful to explain every Hebrew word.

If Mark's is the Gospel of Peter, Luke's is that of Paul, for Luke was a follower of Paul, and a Gentile, who was not an eye-witness of the facts which he records, but who professes to have traced them; probably by the assistance of Paul, who must have himself received them from others. His preface shows that many lives of our Saviour had been circulated, which contained many circumstances not correct, and facts not well founded. This was his reason, therefore, for undertaking the work; so that it was probably began before Mark's Gospel was known at Antioch, or before that of Matthew was translated; unless, as we think is very probable, this Gospel was written at Alexandria, and his censure directed against the 'Gospel, according to the Egyptians,' which is represented to have been an incorrect and an imperfect compilation. That it was finished and published after those of Matthew and Mark, the concurrent testimony of antiquity, and a similarity of language, too pointed and exact to be accidental, demonstrate.

St. John's Gospel was the last, and it is not only the supplementary one, as it contains the facts which happened previous to the æra from which the other narratives began, but, as it is fuller on many doctrinal points, which the other Evangelists have scarcely mentioned. He was an eye-witness of the Passion, and has given a distinct account of it; particularly of the soldier's piercing the side of our Saviour, out of which came blood and water. Dr. Campbell's translation of this part is pointed and strong. 'He was an eye-witness who attesteth this, and his testimony deserveth credit: nay, he is conscious that he speaketh truth, that ye might believe.' Perhaps 'confident,' which the word *οὐκ*, warrants, might have been better than 'conscious.' This eye-witness must therefore have been John, the disciple whom Jesus loved, who was at the foot of the cross, and to whom our Saviour committed the care of his mother.

The Revelations appeared to John in the Isle of Patmos, where he was banished, and his Gospel was written after his return. This fixes its æra to the year 97, and his death, which happened about the beginning of Trajan's reign, to

the following year, 98. John was at that time so old that it was said he would never die. If he was of the age of our Saviour, he must have been then 98; and 68 years had probably elapsed since the crucifixion*. The Gospel was certainly written at the request of the churches of Ephesus; and we are expressly told by Irenæus, that it was designed to rectify the errors of Cerinthus and the Nicolaites, who supposed that God, the Father of the Lord Jesus, was a distinct person from the Creator of the world; and Jesus, the Son of the first, distinct from the real Son of God, who only for a time animated his form, and again returned to heaven. The Alogians even contended that Cerinthus was the author of this Gospel, but various internal arguments might be adduced to show it was the work of John; nor, as Dr. Campbell has observed, is there any reason to oppose the claims of the authors whose name each Gospel bears, even from the controversies of the Heathens in the earliest ages. It appears that this Gospel was written by an uneducated and an illiterate Jew, as well as that it was designed for those converts, to whom the terms and customs of the Jews were not familiar, for every word of doubtful import is explained.

We have followed the prefaces of Dr. Campbell to each of the Gospels, and it remains only to speak of the translation and notes. The translation is in general clear, faithful, and correct. We think, that it is sometimes dilated so much as to weaken its force, and its elegance is occasionally hurt by the introduction of a harsh and improper term; but, in general, the style possesses a simplicity, without descending to familiarity, and a majestic plainness, without losing the dignity, which so important a narrative would demand. The specimen which we shall select is the part which we have already mentioned, the description of the crucifixion of our Lord.

‘ 28 † *THEN they led Jesus from the house of Caiaphas to the pretorium: it was now morning; but the Jews entered not the pretorium, lest they should be defiled, and so not in a condition to eat the Passover. Pilate, therefore, went out to them and said, Of what do ye accuse this man? They answered, If he were not a criminal, we would not have delivered him to thee. Pilate, therefore, said, Take him yourselves then, and judge him according to your law. The Jews replied,*
32 ‡ *We are not permitted to put any man to death. And thus*

* We follow the calculations of Hieronymus, respecting Festus Felix, Acts xxiv. 27.

† Matt. 27; 1. Mar. 15; 1. Lu. 23; 1. Acts 10; 28. and 11; 3.

‡ Matt. 20; 19.

what Jesus had spoken, signifying what death he should die was accomplished.

- 33 * Then Pilate returned to the pretorium, and having called
 34 Jesus, said to him, Thou art the king of the Jews? Jesus
 answered, Sayest thou this of thyself; or did others tell thee
 35 so concerning me? Pilate replied, Am I Jew? Thine
 own nation, yea the chief priests have delivered thee to me.
 36 What hast thou done? Jesus answered, My kingdom is not
 of this world. If my kingdom were of this world, my ad-
 herents would have fought to prevent my falling into the
 37 hands of the Jews; but my kingdom is not hence. Pilate
 thereupon said, Thou art king then? Jesus answered, Thou
 sayest that I am king. For this I was born; and for this I
 came into the world, to give testimony to the truth. Who-
 38 soever is of the truth, hearkeneth to me. Pilate asked him,
 What is truth? and so saying, went out again to the Jews,
 39 † and said to them, For my part I find nothing culpable
 in this man. But since it is customary that I release to you
 one at the passover, will ye that I release to you the king
 40 of the Jews? ‡ Then they all cried, saying, Not this man but
 Barabbas. Now Barabbas was a robber.

XIX. || * Then Pilate caused him to be scourged. And the soldiers
 crowned him with a wreath of thorn which they had picked;
 3 and having thrown a purple mantle about him, said, Hail!
 4 king of the Jews, and gave him blows on the face. Pilate,
 therefore, went out again and said to them, Lo, I bring him
 forth to you, that ye may know that I find in him nothing
 5 culpable. Jesus then went forth wearing the crown of thorns
 and the purple mantle; and Pilate said to them, Behold the
 6 man! When the chief priests and the officers saw him, they
 cried, saying, Crucify, crucify him. Pilate said to them,
 Take him yourselves and crucify him; as for me, I find
 7 no fault in him. The Jews answered, We have a law, and
 by that law he ought to die, because he assumed the title of
 Son of God.

- 8 * When Pilate heard this, he was the more afraid, and hav-
 ing returned to the pretorium, said to Jesus, Whence art thou?
 10 But Jesus gave him no answer. Then Pilate said to him,
 Wilt thou not speak unto me? Knowest thou not that I
 have power to crucify thee, and power to release thee?
 11 Jesus replied, Thou couldst have no power over me, unless
 it were given thee from above, wherefore he who delivered
 12 me to thee hath the greater sin. Thenceforth Pilate sought
 to release him; but the Jews exclaimed, If thou release this
 man, thou art not Cesar's friend. Whoever calleth him-
 self king, opposeth Cesar.
 13 * Pilate, on hearing these words, ordered Jesus to be brought
 forth, and sat down on the tribunal in a place named the pave-

* Matt. 27; 11. Mar. 15; 2. Lu. 23; 3.
 Mar. 15; 6. Lu. 23; 17. † Acts 3; 14.

† Matt. 27; 15.
 ‡ Matt. 27; 27.

- 14 *ment, in Hebrew Gabbatha. (Now it was the preparation of the paschal Sabbath, about the sixth hour.) And he said to the*
 15 *Jews, Behold your king. But they cried out, Away, away with him, crucify him. Pilate said to them, Shall I crucify your king? The chief priests answered, We have no king*
 16 *but Cesar. He delivered him, therefore, to them to be crucified.*
 17 ** Then they took Jesus and led him away. And he carrying his cross, went out to a place called the place of skulls, which is*
 18 *in Hebrew Golgotha, where they crucified him and two others*
 19 *with him, one on each side, and Jesus in the middle. Pilate also wrote a title, and put it upon the cross. The words were,*
 20 **JESUS THE NAZARENE, THE KING OF THE JEWS.** *And many of the Jews read this title (for the place where Jesus was crucified was nigh the city; and it was written*
 21 *in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin); whereupon the chief priests said to Pilate, Write not "the king of the Jews," but*
 22 *"who calleth himself king of the Jews." Pilate answered, What I have written, I have written.*
 23 *† When the soldiers had nailed Jesus to the cross, they took his mantle, and divided it into four parts, one to every soldier: they also took the coat, which was seamless, woven from the top*
 24 *throughout, and said among themselves, Let us not tear it, but determine by lot whole it shall be; thereby verifying the Scripture which saith, "They shared my mantle among them, and cast lots for my vesture †." Thus therefore acted the soldiers.*
 25 *¶ Now there stood near the cross of Jesus, his mother, and her sister Mary the wife of Cleophas, and Mary Magdalene.*
 26 *Then Jesus observing his mother, and the disciple whom he loved standing by, said to his mother, Woman, behold thy son.*
 27 *Then he said to the disciple, Behold thy mother. And from that hour the disciple took her to his own home.*
 28 *¶ After this Jesus knowing that all was now accomplished; that the Scripture might be fulfilled, said, I thirst †. As there was a vessel there full of vinegar, they filled a sponge with vinegar, and, having fastened it to a twig of hyssop, held it to his mouth.*
 29 *When Jesus had received the vinegar, he said, It is finished, and bowing his head, yielded up his spirit.*
 30 *¶ The Jews, therefore, lest the bodies should remain on the cross on the Sabbath, (for it was the preparation and that Sabbath was a great day), besought Pilate that their legs might be broken, and the bodies might be removed. Accordingly the soldiers came and broke the legs of the first, and of the other who*
 31 *were crucified with him. But when they came to Jesus, and found that he was already dead, they did not break his legs.*
 32 *But one of the soldiers with a spear pierced his side, whence blood and water immediately issued. He was an eye-witness who attesteth this, and his testimony deserveth credit: nay, he is conscious that he speaketh truth that ye may believe. For these things*
 33 *happened*

* Matt. 27: 33. Mar. 15: 22. Lu. 23: 33. † Matt. 27: 35.
 Mar. 15: 24. Lu. 23: 34. † Pl. 22: 18. † Pl. 69: 21.

*happened that the Scripture might be verified, "None of his bones shall be broken *." Again, the Scripture saith elsewhere, "They shall look on him whom they have pierced."*

This passage is translated with great dignity, simplicity, and accuracy. We cannot help remarking, however, that pretorium is an instance of what we mentioned. It is an improper word for an English work, and its interpretation, the 'hall of audience,' would have been better. Magians occurs early, and it is used merely because Magus was an improper term in the singular number: its connection with magic and magician should have led Dr. Campbell to have avoided it. The sages of the East would have been equally clear and exact; or, if Magi were retained, one of the Magi might have been the phrase employed, instead of Magus. But to return to the passages before us. In the 34th verse of the 18th chapter, 'Thou art the king of the Jews?' as if the question was asked with hesitation, is not only a close and suitable translation of the words and import of the original, but a form of speaking not uncommon in our language. It loses its force, however, when, in the subsequent passage, v. 37, the form is not altered, 'Thou art king then?' as our Saviour spoke of a kingdom. Pilate with more confidence should have asked the question, What, art thou not then king? Οὐκ οὐ βασιλεὺς εἶ σὺ *. — Τίτλος; also, in the 19th verse of the 19th chapter, we believe, should have been translated *inscription*: it is a word formed from the Latin, and equivalent to *στίλβω*. — These are, however, trifling remarks, and can scarcely be called blemishes. Perhaps we may be allowed to observe, that the whole tenor of the language, which relates to the death of Christ, seems to imply that the resignation of his life was voluntary.

* Ex. 12; 46. Num. 9; 12. Zech. 12; 10.

† We ought to add our author's defence of his translation from his notes.

* 37. *Thou art king then?* Οὐκ οὐ βασιλεὺς εἶ σὺ; E. T. *Art thou a king then?* As to the form of the interrogation, see the parallel passage in Matthew; as to the expression βασιλεὺς εἶ, though it be not so definite, and, consequently, so emphatical, as if it had the article; it is not, on the other hand, so indefinite as it is in the E. T. by being rendered *a king*. This would never have been said of one who claimed to be king of the country, which was, doubtless, Pilate's view of our Lord's pretensions. The expression, *a king*, on the contrary, suggests the notion of foreign dominions. The import of the original is sufficiently expressed in our language, by the omission of the definite article, a thing not uncommon in conversation; and the more natural here, as the words are a repetition of what had been expressed more fully, verse 33. For I have had occasion to observe before, that such ellipses are often adopted in repeating phrases which have but very lately occurred. Ch. xix. 12. N.

We think, however, that his remarks are not directed to the object of our criticism, and that he has particularly neglected to give the force of *ἐκ τῆς*—*noun-igitur*?

We have compared many different passages of this translation with the original, and have found it, as we have said, perspicuous, unaffected, and correct; but we shall not extend our article with any particular remarks as, on another work, we must engage more fully in the examination of different texts, when we shall again take up the volume now before us.

Of the notes we have already given a specimen; and, in general, we may observe that they are philological and critical rather than controversial. Even in the following passage, our author has neither strove to explain away the meaning for one purpose, or to enforce it for another:

30. *I and the Father are one, ὁμοῦ καὶ ὁμοῦ ἐστὶν ἑσθλόν.* The word is not *ie*, *one person*, but *in*, *one thing*, or the same thing. It might have been so rendered here; but the expression is too homely, in the opinion of some excellent critics, to suit the dignity of the subject. The greater part of foreign interpreters have thought otherwise. Vul. Er. Zu. Caf. Be. *Ego et pater unum sumus.* Lu. Ich und der Vater sind ein. Dio. *Io e il padre siamo una istessa cosa.* L. Cl. *Mon pere et moi sommes une seule chose.* P. R. Si. and Sa. *Une meme chose.* What is distinguished in the original, we ought, if possible, to distinguish. Yet no English translator known to me has, in this, chosen to desert the common translation.

Several of the philological notes contain much curious information, and it would give us great satisfaction if it were consistent with our limits to extract one or two, particularly that on John xix 40. where Dr. Campbell shows that *ἐταφίσαι*, means to prepare for the burial, or to embalm, instead of *to bury*. But, perhaps, we have said enough to induce the theological critic to peruse the work; and, if we extended our article, it would not (it ought not), to supersede the examination of the original, from which its different parts were drawn. Dr. Campbell has executed his task with singular credit and ability; and we hope that he will not leave the other parts of the New Testament without a similar attempt, in which we trust he will employ an equal attention.

Miscellaneous Pieces in Prose and Verse. By the Rev. Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin. Not inserted in Mr. Sheridan's Edition of the Dean's Works. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Dilly.

SOME few of these pieces, it is acknowledged, have appeared in Mr. Sheridan's edition, but they are few, and of no great importance. Till a complete edition of Swift's works is published, this volume may be considered either as the 18th of Mr.

Mr. Sheridan's, or the 26th of Dr. Hawksworth and Mr. Nichol's edition. We have looked it over with care, and find many things which have occasionally appeared before, though we do not recollect that they have appeared in any edition of our author's works.

The first part of the volume consists chiefly of letters: some miscellaneous pieces follow. We next find a few miscellaneous poems, and four original poems of Dr. Swift, written in the early period of his life, which we think are valuable acquisitions. Two poems, or rather fragments, from which he certainly borrowed his 'Corinna, Pride of Drury Lane,' and a Latin translation of his verses on Biddy Floyd, then occur; and this supplement is concluded with miscellaneous letters to Dr. Atterbury; one to the Athenian Society, and another to miss Jane Waryng, to whom he is said to have paid his addresses.

Though Swift was the author of more trifling productions than almost any man of equal genius and ability, yet we entertain so much respect for him, that we catch with eagerness the slightest fallies of his mind. It was not the least of his merits that he improved to so great a degree the English prose, as to become the standard of an elegant, perspicuous, and persuasive style. In his latest writings, when his memory was lost, and his mind was only at intervals clear and undisturbed, he seems to have preserved this peculiar excellence. We shall transcribe his last letter to alderman Barber, where we find repetitions indeed of what he had said before, but scarcely a word misplaced, or a sentence for a moment obscure. There are but few letters, and those very short ones, after this time:

'My dear old friend, Dublin, April 19, 1739.

'AT last doctor Squire is actually dead; he died upon the 14th day of this month, and now you have the opportunity of obliging me in giving Squire's living of Colerain to Mr. William Dunkin, who is an excellent scholar, and keeps a school in my neighbourhood; besides, he is a very fine poet. My friend Mr. Richardson can give you a better account of him. It is true, Mr. Dunkin is a married man; however that is of no great moment, and in the northern country of Ireland, although it be the best inhabited part of the kingdom, a wife will be convenient. Yet we two old bachelors (I own I am your senior) could never consent to take so good example, by endeavouring to multiply the world. I heartily thank you for your civilities to young Swift. It seems he is a relation of mine. And there is one Mrs. Whiteway, a widow, the only cousin of my family for whom I have any sort of friendship; it was she prevailed with me to introduce the young man to you. He is a younger brother, and his portion is only 100*l.* a year English. You will oblige me if you can bear seeing him once a quarter, at his lodging

lodging near the Temple, where he designs to study the law; and so I have done with ever troubling you, my dear friend. Where is Mr. Lewis? Some months ago he writ to me with many complaints of his ill health, and the effect of old age, in both which I can overmatch you and him, besides my giddy head, deafness, and forgetfulness into the bargain. I hear our friend lord Bolingbroke hath sold Dawley; I wish you could tell me in what condition he is, both as to health and fortune; and where his lady lives, and how they agree. If you visit my lord and lady Oxford and their daughter, who is now as I hear a duchess, or any other friend of ours, let them have the offers of my humble service. May you, my most dear friend, preserve your health, and live as long as you desire! I am ever, with the greatest truth and esteem,

Your most obedient humble servant,
and entire friend,

JONATH. SWIFT.

* I desire you will give my most hearty service to Mr. Pope; and let him know that I have provided for Mr. Lamb, whom he recommended to me, with a full vicar-choralship in my choir. And pray let me know the state of Mr. Pope's health.

Even so early as in December 1693, his poetical style seems to have been formed. We do not remember any poetry previous to that æra, but the pieces in this volume, the first of which is an Ode to Dr. Sancroft, late archbishop of Canterbury, written in 1689, and the second a Letter to Mr. Congreve, written in November 1693. We shall extract our specimen of his earlier poetry from the lines occasioned by sir William Temple's last illness and recovery, which we alluded to when we said that his style was formed so early as December 1693. In this specimen we find the perspicuity of the later writings, the correctness of his rhymes, the accuracy of his metaphors, as well as the exactness with which the allusion was usually carried on:

‘ Strange to conceive, how the same objects strike
At distant hours the mind with forms so like!
Whether in time, deduction's broken chain
Meets, and salutes her sister link again;
Or hunted fancy, by a circling flight,
Comes back with joy to its own seat at night;
Or whether dead imagination's ghost
Oft hovers where alive it haunted most;
Or if thought's rolling globe her circle run,
Turns up old objects to the soul her sun;
Or loves the muse to walk with conscious pride
O'er the glad scene whence first she rose a bride:
Be what it will; late near yon whisp'ring stream,
Where her own Temple was her darling theme;

There

There first the visionary found was heard,
 When to poetic view the Muse appear'd.
 Such seem'd her eyes, as when an evening ray
 Gives glad farewell to a tempestuous day;
 Weak is the beam to dry up nature's tears,
 Still ev'ry tree the pendent sorrow wears;
Such are the smiles where drops of chrystal show,
Approaching joy at strife with parting woe.'

We suspect the Letter to Miss Waryng has appeared before, though the circumstance is not insisted on so fully in the different lives of our author as it ought to have been. It appears plainly from the letter before us, that the lady's conduct had been capricious and unsteady, though, at this time it appears as plainly, that Swift wished to escape the marriage-bond.

Sir Charles Wogan's answer to Swift's letter, or rather that gentleman's political tract, is in many respects curious. It contains some valuable observations, though mixed with many religious and political prejudices. His antipathy to lord Clarendon is violent; but we think, as friends of liberty, we must applaud his preventing parliament from fixing a permanent unalienable revenue on the crown at that time. On the whole, we have been much pleased with many parts of this additional volume, and we would recommend it to the admirers of Swift: at the same time we wish, with our author, that some of the desiderata to a complete edition of Swift's works were supplied. He has properly pointed them out; and, if they are still in existence, we hope they will not be withheld.

Essays, Civil, Moral, Literary, and Political, written after the Manner of M. de Montaigne: interspersed with Characters, Portraits, Anecdotes, &c. By the celebrated Marquis d'Argenson. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Walter.

THE marquis d'Argenson was a prime minister of France, the friend and correspondent of the great Frederic. With much acquired information and good natural abilities, his Essays must be interesting and pleasing; yet we know not when we have felt ourselves at a greater loss to give a general or comprehensive account of any work. The marquis writes for his amusement, in a manner at once desultory and careless; nor is it easy often to trace the connexion of his ideas, or to say what the subject really is: the title of the Essay is not always a safe guide, for whatever may be the beginning, it is seldom that the author does not wander far in his progress from the subject with which he began. The most interesting
 part

part of the work is, however, the remarks on the characters and conduct of different persons, who were distinguished either in the military, political, and literary department, during the reign of Louis XIV. In these our author is clear, seemingly well-informed, and entertaining. But many of these personages are now fading in the public eye; and to ascertain their exact proportion of honesty or of ability, is not a very interesting task. In this difficulty we shall endeavour to select some passages which will probably lead our readers to the work itself, which if it lie in the parlour-window or the dressing-room, will furnish a very agreeable entertainment for moments which might otherwise be dedicated to indolence or ennui. The work too, will not be without its use to the more minute historian, to the literary enquirer, or to the speculatist.

The cause of the publication of the memoirs of M. Joly, secretary to cardinal de Retz, is not perhaps, generally known.

‘The appearance of sincerity which runs through this (the cardinal’s) work, seduced and delighted men’s minds. Although the style be neither pure nor brilliant, it was read with pleasure and avidity; and what is still more, there were people who were so enraptured with the character of the cardinal de Retz, that they thought seriously of imitating him; and as the cardinal had not been disgusted with the characters of the Gracchi, of Cataline, and the count de Fiesque, nor with the unhappy fate which befel them; so his disgraces did not discourage those who were inclined to take him for a model, although they had not perhaps his spirit of intrigue. Government perceived this in the year 1718, and the regent spoke of it again to my father, who was become keeper of the seals; a new remedy was sought for the bad effects which the Memoirs had produced. It was proposed to print the Memoirs of Joly, who had been his secretary; they were also in the library of M. de Caumartin, who made some difficulty in giving them up: the cardinal is treated more severely in them than in his own; but the regent was determined to ruin entirely the reputation of the cardinal de Retz, to make known his real character, and to disgust those who were disposed to imitate him. The Memoirs of Joly did not produce this effect, being written in a manner less pleasing than those of the cardinal, they brought an odium upon the author: he was looked upon as an ungrateful and faithless servant, who injured the reputation of him who had for a considerable time given him bread: the frankness of the cardinal had, on the contrary, interested people in his behalf; and notwithstanding every thing that was done, men of turbulent dispositions continued to love him, and to imitate his conduct at the risque of every thing that could befall them; and no person ever declared himself in favour of M. Joly.’

The

The following reflection will be received as prophetic by those who are not admirers of Montesquieu : it may be styled the most severe side of truth.

‘ We have good institutes of the Roman civil laws ; we have tolerable ones in the French laws ; but we have none published of general or universal ones. We have no *Esprit des Loix*, and I doubt much of our friend Montesquieu's giving us one which will serve as a guide and compass to all the legislators of the world. I know him to have all possible art ; he has acquired vast knowledge in his travels, and in his retreats to the country ; but I predict once more, that he will not give us the book we want, although there will be found in what he is composing, many profound ideas, new thoughts, striking images, sallies of wit and genius, and an infinity of curious facts, whose application supposes still more taste than study.’

Let us add one other passage, which is only in its conclusion prophetic ; we hope it was not added while the book was in the press.

‘ The English have very little style, and still less method ; but they have strong and elevated thoughts : accustomed to overlook prejudices in matters of policy and government, their daring genius is the same in every respect. Their pleasantries are neither mild nor cautious ; their satire is violent, but sometimes very delightful. We are already acquainted with Dean Swift, one of their most ingenious and satirical authors. His work is well enough translated into French. It is generally more easy to render English pleasantries into other languages than to translate, for instance, Italian ones into French, and ours into any language whatever, because English satire falls upon things, and the persons are well described, and in very striking colours, whereas the Italians play upon words, and the French flutter round the object at which they laugh ; they joke and play with it as a cat does with a mouse ; consequently these pleasantries are very difficult to understand and render. Nothing can be better written, or more agreeable to read, than the papers of the *Spectator*. If the English had many like this, we could not be too anxious to become acquainted with them : but I foresee that we shall have many bad translations of this first and excellent English author ; that from hence a new taste of literature will be established among us ; that the French, who never know how to check their enthusiasm, will anglify themselves, and that we shall lose many of our graces in acquiring some of their spirit, ideas, and liberty of thinking and writing. Voltaire has already said, that when men think forcibly, they express themselves forcibly also ; this is true ; but strength of thought may be carried too far, and become equally rude and disgusting in ideas and style.’

We

We must finish as we began, by recommending this work as generally pleasing; and in some parts interesting and informing:—we must add too, that it seems to be translated with much accuracy and attention.

Twelve Sermons preached on Particular Occasions, by the Rev. Edward Barry, A. M. and M. D. 8vo. 4s. Bew.

OUR author unites the sacred character with the more useful one of physician; and he tells us (indeed it seems to be the chief design of his publication) that if he should obtain a living, it is his intention to dedicate his healing talents to the relief of the poor, 'without gratuity or fee.' We are not usually fond of uniting two professions, for we know that the rector of even a moderate parish, if he discharges his duty in all respects conscientiously, has not many leisure hours; and we should suspect, that a knowledge of the practice of physic is not easily caught in those moments spared from superior avocations. If Dr. Barry obtains his wished-for rectory, we would recommend the exertion of his abilities to secure the attendance and humanity of a skilful parish apothecary, rather than to the dividing his cares between two professions, whose views and objects are not always related. At a distance from other relief, his medical talents would undoubtedly be useful.

The Sermons are professedly preached on particular occasions, and some of these have been already printed. It is needless to point out the subjects, or to analyse the discourses; for on popular occasions, an animated manner and a declamatory style are in general sufficient. Of Dr. Barry's powers in the first respect we cannot judge at a distance; but the last is very conspicuous in the Sermons before us; and in more than one instance it seems to border very nearly on the confines of enthusiasm. Our author too, is strictly, and often violently orthodox.

The Sermon preached on Good Friday, from John xix. 30. 'It is finished,' will furnish no improper specimen of our author's manner.

'Gracious glorious news from our crucified God!—the pains of hell were laid upon him, and by his stripes we are healed.—"It is finished!"—The atonement is settled and accepted, and we are called upon to work out our salvation with fear and trembling. He has freed us from the tyranny of the law, and directed our footsteps to Canaan's ground. Let us walk therein, and not crucify him afresh, by continuing in our sins. He trode the wine-press alone, and none was with him.

'The

‘ The dying language of Calvary is, “ It is finished ! ” — our existence this morning proves it — all nature wears the richness of his blood.

‘ The joy of heaven is, that it is finished ! — let us then, as sinners, and commemorating the salvation offered to sinners through Christ, of which these sacred elements are his humble and appointed representatives, shew that we have love and gratitude to celebrate the memory of our divine master, which the night before his death he consecrated in the sacrament of his supper, by which we obtain remission of sins, and all other benefits of his death and passion.’

Dr. Barry complains, in the usual style, of the inequality of the preferments of the church ; but complaints of this kind are of little more importance than those of unequal strength or health ; of disproportioned wealth or dignity in other respects. We allow that those who preach the gospel should live by the gospel ; but we must still allow of superior honours and wealth as the rewards of superior talents, more unremitting labour in the vineyard, and more useful exertions in the cause of religion or of literature. That dignities and affluence do not always attend these acquisitions or these labours, we may regret ; but we may also with pleasure reflect, from many instances within our own remembrance, that they are not always misapplied ; for the ablest men in the church have attained some of the highest ranks in it.

Chests. Vol. II. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Robinsons.

IN our LXIVth volume, p. 190. we gave some account of the first volume of this collection : the researches of an amateur are endless ; and the collection of anecdotes relating to the game seems to be no less fascinating than the game itself. Our author, with incredible diligence, has availed himself of whatever he could find. We shall extract a few short passages which are either curious or amusing. The ladies will forgive us for giving the preference to the following lines ; but they were the first which occurred.

‘ A DESCRIPTION OF WOMEN.

‘ All you that lovers bee, and love the amorous trade,
Come learne of mee, what women bee,
And whereof they are made.

Their head is made of rash,
Their tounge are made of fay,
Their love of silken changeable,
That lasteth but a day.

Their

Their wit mockado is,
Of durance is their hate,
The food they feed on most is carp,
Their gaming is check-mate.'

Mr. Twiss thinks that the panegyric of Lucan ad C. Pisonem has no reference to Chefs :

'Du Cange, however, in one of his notes to Joinville's *Histoire de St. Louis*, says that "Lucanus in *Parg. ad Pisonem* a décrit elegamment le jeu des Eschees." They are likewise in Severins and in Verci's books, with all the arguments for and against the supposition that the game there disputed was Chefs.

'Notwithstanding Chefs is mentioned among other games in the English translation of Agrippa, quoted in p. 205. there is no such word in the original; the passage appears to have been taken from John of Salisbury's *Policrat.* where, in chap. v. "of gaming, and its use and abuse," he says: "now when the government of Asia was destroyed, among the spoils of the conquered city, gaming in various sorts passed over to the Greeks. Hence the die, *calculus*, tables, *uris* or the Trojan game, *tricolus*, *senio*, *monarchus*, *orb cuti*, *teliorchus*, *vulpes*, which should rather be unlearned than taught."

We shall select the following passage, because it is omitted in the English translation of La Peyrere's letter.

"The teeth of the morse are artfully cut and used in the game of chefs, which all the northern nations play at, chiefly the princes and nobility, and that for various good reasons, one of which is, that by this means parents may examine the tempers of the wooers of their daughters. No person can, in that game, avoid giving some specimen of his merit and patience in the cases of prosperity and adversity. ———"

"I had almost forgot to mention one thing worth our observation among the Icelanders, viz. that they are great Chefs-players, there being not a peasant in the country but what has a set of it, which they make themselves out of fish-bones. The whole difference betwixt theirs and ours, being only that our spoils stand for their bishops; because, say they, the clergymen ought to be near the king's person. Their rooks represent little captains, whence the Iceland scholars call them *centuriones*. They are represented with swords on their sides, with bloated cheeks, as if they were blowing the horn they hold in both their hands."

Our readers will now be able to judge for themselves of the value of this collection, which is, on the whole, very entertaining and interesting, to those who are fond of the game.

Essay

Essays on Physiognomy; for the Promotion of the Knowledge and the Love of Mankind. Written in the German Language by J. C. Lavater, and translated into English by Thomas Holcroft. Illustrated by three hundred and sixty Engravings. 3 Vols. 8vo. 5l. 5s. in Boards. Robinsons.

WE need not introduce M. Lavater to our readers: his singular work has carried his name and reputation far beyond the borders of his little state, beyond the Alps, and beyond the surrounding seas. It is now made our own, and this first complete edition we take up with eagerness: so that, if we transgress a little in the length of our article, the novelty and curiosity of our subject will plead the excuse.

M. Lavater tells us that he has no pretensions to the character of a scientific physiognomist; as in the first rude sketch of a landscape, we perceive here a mountain and there a grove, the bolder features obtrude themselves on our sight; but the connections, or the more delicate finishing strokes, are not to be found. Such are our author's fragments; and we shall sketch the outline after him in a similar way; but we must first enquire a little more carefully, how far physiognomy, as a science, can exist; or to what extent the researches of the physiognomist can probably be carried.

M. Lavater tells us truly, that every person is a physiognomist, or, in other words, every one endeavours from the features to develop the intricacies of the mind, and to form a judgment of the disposition. This general tendency undoubtedly shows that there is some foundation for the conjectures, since if they had been always fallacious and fruitless, the attempt would have been considered as ridiculous: to a certain extent, however, the wisest and best informed men have trusted to it, and it is only necessary to ascertain the limits. The passions of the mind are discovered in the countenance; and every muscle when it has been often exercised, is fuller, stronger, and more prominent. Thus simple is the foundation of the science; but we may add a little to it. The frequent exertion not only adds to the power of the muscles, but increases the irritability; so that from exercise the most transient emotions of the mind are followed by the corresponding alterations of the features: the eyes frequently starting from passion become prominent; the eye-brows, knit by anger, will by degrees make a deeper impression on the bone; the mouth drawn aside by scorn, will in time assume that appearance when no scorned object appears. Independent of these alterations, the physician knows that constitutions naturally vary; and these varieties, within certain limits, have long been dis-

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tinguished

tinguished by the name of temperaments, each of which is accompanied by corresponding states of mind. These, from experience, we connect with the temperament; and the adust, fallow, person, even independent of particular expression, we consider as subject to melancholy, capable of intense thought, deep speculation, and retentive of impressions which have been some time fixed: the fair, flushed, animated face, he considers, on the same foundation, as eager, impetuous, volatile, and changeable; and so of the others. Again: there is, on the whole, little doubt, and M. Lavater allows it, that dispositions are inherited from the parent, independent of temperament. This circumstance, which throws some probably insuperable difficulties in the way of the enquirer, at the same time fixes an indelible stamp on the countenance, which often assists him and leads us to trace even in the child, those passions, which may be the comfort or the destruction of the future man. Besides all these circumstances drawn from the constitution, the habits of life fix a strong impression. Various occupations give a distinguishing cast of feature, derived from the business in which successive days are employed. Intemperance is distinguished not only by the absence of good impressions, but by that insensible cast of features which they assume in the moments of intoxication, as the epileptic, when the fit has left him, can seldom expand his countenance with intelligence or complacency. Idleness not only destroys expression, but implants fatuity or confusion. Benevolence, with an expanded eye, contrasted to the contracted squint of suspicion, assumes that appearance which it so frequently employs; and this brings us back to our first principle respecting the influence of custom over the muscles, and consequently over the features.

There is one part of our author's system which we cannot reduce to these principles, and yet it is certainly well founded; we mean the high, arched, and expanded forehead. It must be a very sensible and intelligent countenance which can compensate for a defect of this kind, since it generally accompanies observation, reflection, and judgment. We can only connect it with one remark, that those animals who come nearest to us in form, though they differ in understanding, have this striking and pointed difference. Shakespeare, when he would describe a transformation by enchantment, into something disagreeable and ugly, points out, as the resemblance,

—————
barnacles and apes
With foreheads villainous low.

When our author goes farther, and speaks of the influence of the mind on the gestures, the walk, and the attitude, he must be followed with great caution. There is a distinction in these respects

respects between a wise man and a fool, but little between a moderately, or an affectedly wise man, and another truly so. A dancing-master will accomplish the fool so as to resemble a philosopher. But we have indulged ourselves enough in general speculation, though we have brought forward much of M. Lavater's book: we will now follow our author in his desultory career.

The edition employed by Mr. Holcroft is that of M. Ambruster, the author's friend, who has lopped his too luxuriant branches, and again submitted it in the more contracted state to M. Lavater himself. It is still, however, fanciful, abrupt, and rhapsodical; but we discover great ingenuity, much philanthropy, an expanded benevolence, and true religion, in every part of it.

The introduction is a pure rhapsody on the works of God, and the excellence of man. M. Lavater then gives us the history of his attention to physiognomy, or rather the history of the progress of a warm, eager mind, from a casual fondness for a subject, to the height of enthusiasm. The next fragment is on the nature of man, as the foundation of physiognomy. A specimen will perhaps be sufficient:

'Although the physiological, intellectual, and moral life of man, with all their subordinate powers, and their constituent parts, so eminently unite in one being; although these three kinds of life do not, like three distinct families, reside in separate parts, or stories of the body; but coexist in one point, and, by their combination, form one whole; yet it is plain that each of these powers of life has its peculiar station, where it more especially unfolds itself, and acts.

'It is beyond contradiction evident that, though physiological or animal life displays itself through all the body, and especially through all the animal parts, yet *does it act most conspicuously in the arm, from the shoulder to the ends of the fingers.*

'It is equally clear that intellectual life, or the powers of the understanding and the mind, make themselves, most apparent in the circumference and form of the solid parts of the head; especially the forehead, though they will discover themselves, to an attentive and accurate eye, in every part and point of the human body, by the congeniality and harmony of the various parts, as will be frequently noticed in the course of this work. Is there any occasion to prove that the power of thinking resides neither in the foot, in the hand, nor in the back; but in the head, and its internal parts?

'The moral life of man, particularly, reveals itself in the lines, marks, and transitions of the countenance. His moral powers and desires, his irritability, sympathy, and antipathy; his facility of attracting or repelling the objects that surround him; these are all summed up in, and painted upon, his countenance,

tenance, when at rest. When any passion is called into action, such passion is depicted by the motion of the muscles, and these motions are accompanied by a strong palpitation of the heart. If the countenance be tranquil, it always denotes tranquillity in the region of the heart and breast.*

If the intellect is seated in the head, the morality in the breast, and the animal life below the waist, the face may be considered as an epitome of the whole, and represent these different qualities in its corresponding parts: three lives are also, 'all and each expressed on every part of the body.'—Can any thing be more whimsical, more distant from solid reason and sound philosophy? But in the fragment on the truth of physiognomy our author recovers his judgment.

'After repeated observation that an active and vivid eye and an active and acute wit are frequently found in the same person, shall it be supposed that there is no relation between the active eye and the active mind? Is this the effect of accident?—Of accident!—Ought it not rather to be considered as sympathy, an interchangeable and instantaneous effect, when we perceive that, at the very moment the understanding is most acute and penetrating and the wit the most lively, the motion and fire of the eye undergo, at that moment, the most visible change?

'Shall the open, friendly, and unsuspecting eye, and the open, friendly, and unsuspecting heart, be united in a thousand instances, and shall we say the one is not the cause, the other the effect?

'Shall nature discover wisdom and order in all things; shall corresponding causes and effects be every where united; shall this be the most clear the most indubitable of truths; and in the first the most noble of the works of nature shall she act arbitrarily, without design, without law? The human countenance, that mirror of the Divinity, that noblest of the works of the Creator—shall not motive an action, shall not the correspondence between the interior and the exterior, the visible and the invisible, the cause and the effect, be there apparent?

'Yet this is all denied by those who oppose the truth of the science of physiognomy.'

Even dissimulation, 'like the shadow, proves the substance true,' for why should man dissimble, if he were not afraid that his natural traits would discover him? Every man is; undoubtedly, in some degree influenced by this science, but the physiognomy of an apple and a glass of wine borders again on the ridiculous, and may be numbered as one of the reasons, why it has been so often treated with contempt. Many of those reasons are enumerated in the next fragment, and appear to be strictly just. There are many testimonies in favour of physiognomy brought forward, among which is Solomon, Prov. vi. 13. xvi.

50. xvii. 24. xxi. 4. 29. xxx. 13. The German authors introduced, are chiefly of the fanciful kind. Some remarks on the universality of physiognomical science follow : and the additions or rather exercises are added, for our author instructs only by example. Among the heads are those of Johnson, Shakspeare, and Sterne, whose features our readers know : let them hear our author's judgments.

'*Johnson*. The most unpractised eye will easily discover, in these two sketches of Johnson, the acute, the comprehensive, the capacious mind, not easily deceived, and rather inclined to suspicion than credulity.'

— '*Shakspeare*. A copy of a copy : add, if you please, a spiritless, vapid outline. How deficient must all outlines be ! Among ten thousand can one be found that is exact ? Where is the outline that can portray genius ? Yet who does not read in this outline, imperfect as it is, from pure physiognomical sensation, the clear, the capacious, the rapid mind ; all conceiving, all embracing, that with equal swiftness and facility, imagines, creates, produces.'

'*Sterne*. The most unpractised reader will not deny to this countenance all the keen, the searching, penetration of wit ; the most original fancy, full of fire, and the powers of invention. Who is so dull as not to view, in this countenance, somewhat of the spirit of poor Yorick ?'

But M. Lavater goes on. Physiognomy is a science ; it has advantages and disadvantages. He would have been more correct if he had said, it may become a science, for how can the term scientific be given to what has yet no appropriated language ; which cannot, except in its extremes, be communicated by words or by figures ? If it should ever become a science, which we greatly doubt, nothing will be easier than to elude its discoveries, for they depend upon terms so minute, variations so trifling, that the intelligent knave will always have the advantage over unsuspecting honesty—But this is perhaps 'to consider too minutely.'

The ease and difficulty in studying physiognomy are next examined ; and the rarity of physiognomical spirit pointed out. In these fragments we meet with nothing very curious, peculiar, or interesting. The author's enthusiasm carries him over every difficulty, and smooths each impediment. The additions, which are outlines, shades, or portraits, are very interesting, and the remarks often ingenious and generally entertaining ; but the merits of this part of the work it is out of our power to convey.

In the delineation of the characters and the qualities of the physiognomist, our author's enthusiasm particularly appears. He must be the wisest and best ; the most exactly proportioned

and the handsomest man in the world. His eye must be acute and accurate; his feelings refined and exquisite; his impressions vivid, clear, and permanent; his recollection ready, pointed, and exact; his understanding sound; his judgment steady; his knowledge only bounded by the imperfections of humanity. He must be mild, innocent, benevolent, and enthusiastic.

The apparently false decisions of physiognomy are no proofs against the existence of the science; for our author contends that it is in its infancy, and if the physiognomist must possess all the qualities described, we fear it will continue so. One of the most notorious of these false decisions is that respecting Socrates, who was said, from his countenance, to be passionate, debauched, &c. The philosopher saved the credit of the physiognomist, and allowed that he was addicted by nature to the different vices, but that he had conquered these propensities by the study of philosophy. M. Lavater examines his bust and his profile according to different representations, and finds little to commend, but his large high forehead, the eye-brows, and the breadth of the nose. The form of the nose is, however, good: it is neither twisted by contempt, enlarged by passion, or compressed by sensuality: the mouth too is well formed, and though not noble, seems to show benevolence: the eye, and the contracted space between the eye and the mouth, are alone exceptionable: but we have stepped on too fast; yet, among the mistakes of physiognomists, the subject of Socrates, which occupies another fragment, should not be forgotten.

The general objections against physiognomy are answered so plausibly, 'they almost persuade us to become'—physiognomists; and dissimulation, one of the strongest objections, though less satisfactorily obviated, will be found to have lost somewhat of its force. All that can be alledged against our author's arguments, is that if ever the science should be studied systematically, dissimulation will also become a science and overturn it: we know what adepts many already are in this last attempt. A man cannot indeed change the colour and lustre of his eyes, alter the shape of his head or of his chin; but he can colour or arch his eye-brows, can correct the look of vacant emptiness by contracting his eye-lids and fixing his eyes as if in contemplation, and can change the appearance of the whole by changing the expression. Dr. Smith has informed us that the very peculiar features of the negroes are almost obliterated by a change of character, and consequently expression. We allow the fool cannot make himself a wise man, or the debilitated debauchee assume the manly vigour and the conscious intrepidity of virtue; but between those we want no distinctions:

tions : we would distinguish between pretenders, who possess a little of what they are vain of being thought to possess much — A slight superficial discussion on freedom and necessity, with additions or physiognomonical exercises, in which we find no portrait that we can suppose our readers acquainted with, follow.

The fragment which relates to the ‘harmony between moral and corporeal beauty’ is an admirable one, and it is a subject which a benevolent physiognomist would labour with particular attention. It is not pretended that goodness, benevolence, or charity will add a cubit to the stature, straiten the crooked leg, or sink the disproportioned shoulder. Our author means by beauty, expression of the countenance, which, when good, would appear charming, and when bad, detestable to observers of every kind. These expressions, he contends, are the concomitants of good and bad propensities of the indulgence of good or bad passions and affections. In this, he says there is little difficulty.

‘Each frequently repeated change, form, and state of countenance, impresses, at length, a durable trait on the soft and flexible parts of the face. The stronger the change, and the oftener it is repeated, the stronger, deeper, and more indelible is the trait. We shall hereafter shew that the like impression is made in early youth, even on the bony parts.

‘An agreeable change, by constant repetitions, makes an impression on, and adds a feature of durable beauty to, the countenance.

‘A disagreeable change, by constant repetition, makes an impression on, and adds a feature of durable deformity to, the countenance.

‘A number of such like beautiful changes, when combined, if not counteracted, impart beauty to the face; and many deformed changes impart deformity.

‘We have before observed, that morally beautiful states of the mind impart beautiful impressions.

‘Therefore the same changes, incessantly repeated, stamp durable expressions of beauty on the countenance.

‘Morally deformed states of mind have deformed expressions; consequently, if incessantly repeated, they stamp durable features of deformity.

‘They are, in proportion, stronger, and deeper, the oftener, and the stronger, the expressions peculiar to the supposed state of mind take place.’

Every yielding feature partakes, he thinks, in these alterations, and durable states of beauty and deformity are impressed.

‘It may happen that one possessed of many excellent qualities, and who long has practised virtue, at length may yield to the force of passion, and, in so great a degree, that all the world, according to the general sense of the world, may justly pronounce him vicious. Will it therefore be said, “Behold your vicious beauty! Where is your harmony between virtue and beauty?”

‘Has it not been already premised that such a person had excellent dispositions, and much good, and that he had long encouraged and established the goodness of his character?

‘He therefore had, and still has, goodness worthy of emulation; and the more habitual it is to him, the deeper root the first virtuous impression took, the more conspicuous and firm are the traits of beauty imprinted upon his countenance. The roots and stem still are visible, though some alien branch may have been ingrafted. The soil and its qualities are apparent, notwithstanding that tares have been sown among the wheat. Is it not, therefore, easy to conceive that the countenance may continue fair, although the man has yielded to vice? This but confirms the truth of our proposition.

‘Indeed, an eye but little experienced will discover that such a countenance was still more beautiful, previous to the dominion of this passion; and that it is, at present, in part, deformed. How much less pleasing, alas! how much more harsh, and disagreeable, than formerly, though it may not have arrived at that state which Gellert describes!

“His morn of youth how wondrous fair!

How beauteous was his bloom!

But ah! he stray’d from virtue’s paths,

And pangs his life consume.

His wasted form, his livid eye,

His haggard aspect pale,

Of many a hidden, hideous vice,

Recount a fearful tale.”

‘I have known handsome, and good, young men, who, in a few years, by debauchery and excess, have been totally altered. They were still generally termed handsome, and so, indeed, they were; but, good God! how different was their present from their former beauty!’

We have a similar instance before us—a young man, handsome, graceful, and accomplished in the highest degree; in his countenance beamed virtue and benevolence, which had fixed their stations when he gave way to every kind of intemperance. His grace and his person remain unchanged; but in his features every physiognomist, and the reader will perceive that we are amateurs of the science, can discover a vulgarity of expression: sensuality and stupidity have begun to make their inroads. If his vices do not destroy him, a few years

years will make him ugly. The following remark, introduced in obviating some objections, is singularly just.

‘Let it be further considered—There are a multitude of minute, mean, disgusting, thoughts, manners, incivilities, whims, excesses, degrading attachments, obscenities, follies, obliquities of the heart, which, singly, or collectively, men are far from denominating vice; yet a number of such, combined, may greatly debilitate and deform the man. While he remains honest in his dealings, without any notorious vice, and adds to this something of the œconomy of the citizen, he will be called a good fellow, an excellent fellow, against whom no man has any thing to allege; and, certainly, there are great numbers of such good, ugly, fellows.—I hope I have been sufficiently explicit on this subject.’

On the whole, this fragment contains so many valuable, so many strictly just, so many moral and beneficial observations on the effects of vice or virtue, that they would fix the author in no mean rank among the benefactors of mankind. The fragment on Socrates, and various physiognomical exercises, conclude the volume.

But will physiognomy improve the heart? will it add to philanthropy or detract from it? The outline of a discussion on this subject appears in the beginning of the second volume; and M. Lavater concludes on the favourable side, for physiognomy, though it may discover much latent evil, reveals many secret good qualities: ‘it shows what man is not and cannot be; why he is not, cannot be; and what he is or can be:’ it shows not only actual, but possible perfections, which more favourable circumstances might have developed. The origin of all evil, says our author, is good: those powers, propensities, and qualities, which, when misdirected, are the cause of evil, are actual positive good, and may be often the ‘cause of increased good.’

The directions for the study of physiognomy are curious, and we think, valuable. They are sufficient to alarm the forward pretender, and to awe the shallow coxcomb. M. Lavater teaches his correspondent, count Thun of Vienna, to examine the human face in the outline, and in detail: to select remarkable, well-known, corresponding, and contrasted features; to proceed from the outline by degrees to the full face, and to add the air, the stature, and the manner. He who is collected in delivering a tea-cup will not easily be hurried in the paths of science: he who is attentive in ordinary conversation, will carefully weigh, examine, and reflect in his closet. Much of this fragment is excellent, but a little is fanciful, and our author’s enthusiasm sometimes carries him to the confines of the

the ridiculous. His 'physiognomical sensation,' without which it is in vain to study, is like an ear in music, a quickness of perception, and an acuteness of discrimination between impressions very nearly similar: it is not a fanciful occult quality. The remarks on the physiognomical language are very curious and interesting, because an accurate language, as we have said, is an indispensable desideratum.

Some rhapsodical reflections on the universal excellence of the form of man, some judicious remarks on portrait-painting, and some physiognomical exercises, also occur in this part of the volume. The remarks on portrait-painting are chiefly complaints of the inattention of painters to the minuter discriminations of different parts. In particular, he observes, that all painters have 'failed in the general theory of the mouth.' M. Lavater tells us, that he has studied the *general properties* of the mouth in infants, boys, youth, old age, *maidens, wives, and matrons*. But if maidens and wives have perfectly different mouths, we hope that he will conceal this part of the science, as so obvious a feature will furnish the physiognomist with an opportunity of making improper discoveries: the cause of virtue, will, however, be the gainer. But to be serious, portrait-painting can never be the school of the physiognomist, for reasons which we shall hereafter point out; and particularly while the first artists aim only at general effect, while they soften what is deformed, and add an air of dignity and respectability to the whole, which the original often wants.


By the congeniality of the human form, or to render the subject simpler, by the congeniality of the human face, the author means a certain congruity of features adapted to each other, among which it is impossible to change one without altering the symmetry and proportion of the whole. This seems fanciful, and the author's reasoning is more so; yet a fact which he mentions, and which we know to be true, seems to support it, viz. that there is no more effectual disguise than an artificial nose. This, however, may be explained on different principles: let us therefore select M. Lavater's observations

'To render this indisputable, let a number of shades be taken, and classed, according to the foreheads. We shall then in its place, that all real and possible human foreheads may be classed under certain signs, and that their classes are not innumerable. Let him next class the noses, then the chins; then let him compare the signs of the noses and foreheads; and he will find certain noses are never found with certain foreheads; and, on the contrary, other certain foreheads are always accompanied by a certain kind of noses; and that the same observation is true with respect to every other feature of the face, unless the moveable features should have something acquired which

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is not the work of the first formation and productive power of nature, but of art, of accident, of constraint: experiment will render this indisputable. As a preliminary amusement for the enquiring reader I shall add what follows.

‘Among a hundred circular foreheads, in profile, I have never yet met with one Roman nose. In a hundred other square foreheads I have scarcely found one in which were not cavities and prominences. I never yet saw a perpendicular forehead, with strongly ached features, in the lower part of the countenance, the double chin excepted.

‘I meet no strong-bowed eyebrows  combined with bony perpendicular countenances.

‘Wherever the forehead is projecting so, in general, are the under lips, children excepted.

‘I have never seen gently arched yet much retreating foreheads combined with a short snub nose, which, in profile, is sharp and funken.

‘A visible nearness of the nose to the eye is always attended by a visible wideness between the nose and mouth.’—

‘Take two, three, or four shades of men, remarkable for understanding, join the features so artificially that no defect shall appear, as far as relates to the act of joining; that is, take the forehead of one, add the nose of a second, the mouth of a third, the chin of a fourth, and the result of this combination of the signs of wisdom shall be folly. Folly is perhaps nothing more than the emendation of some heterogeneous addition.—“But let these four wise countenances be supposed congruous?”—Let them so be supposed, or as nearly so as possible, still their combination will produce the signs of folly.’

These facts are striking, and we believe the observations just; some examples are added which greatly illustrate these remarks.

M. Lavater prefers shades in many instances to portraits, for physiognomonical exercises. They are, however, slight and imperfect representations, but they are accurate copies from nature in some of the more important outlines; copies which dissimulation cannot change or vanity alter. He distinguishes properly what may be discovered from them, and what, in general, they cannot express. They will not always show extraordinary talents; but our author tells us that ‘a man may act, write, speak, or suffer, so as to appear extraordinary, though in reality he is not so.’ He does not chuse to give examples, but we believe every one’s experience will furnish them.

As we cannot finish even our sketch of these fragments in one article, we shall now stop, for the author next proceeds to a very different subject. Though we shall speak more at length of the decorations of these volumes, we ought to observe,

serve, before we conclude, that this first complete English version of Lavater is a very beautiful one. The paper and printing are excellent, and the engravings unite great elegance with much accuracy. The editor seems to have steered properly between two extremes: he has neither disgraced the work by a parsimonious retrenchment of ornaments, or improperly enhanced its price by useless splendor.

Oeuvres Posthumes de Frederic II. Roi de Prusse, en 15. Tomes.
8vo. Berlin. Vols et Fils, Decker et Fils.

Oeuvres Posthumes de Frederic II. Roi de Prusse. Partie I. II.
Tom. I. II.

The History of my own Times. Part I. II. Vols. I. II. 7s.
each in Boards. Robinsons.

(Continued from p. 141.)

IN a former Number we left the king of Prussia entering on the famous war of seven years. Perhaps the annals of history do not furnish a detail of military exploits more replete with interesting scenes and unexpected events. The many sudden and surprising vicissitudes of fortune, which Frederick is constantly experiencing, keep the mind of the reader in suspense and anxiety for the issue of every enterprize, and he looks forward to the final event with impatience and apprehension. In these respects, this history excels the Commentaries of Cæsar, which the author seems, as we have before observed, to have had in his eye during the time he was composing it. The almost uniform and uninterrupted success of the Romans produces an insipid sameness of event, and takes away from the interest we should otherwise feel in the perusal of the Commentaries. When we are told that an engagement is near, we have learnt from long experience to entertain little doubt how it will end: so constantly did victory follow the Roman arms, as to justify the seemingly vaunting expression of their leader, 'I came, I saw, I conquered.' Very different indeed was the chequered fortune of the hero and historian before us, as our readers will perceive by the succinct detail we shall now give of some of the most interesting occurrences.

The king of Prussia being furnished by a spy in office at Dresden, with incontestible proofs that the empress of Germany and her formidable allies intended to attack him, thought it prudent and justifiable to strike the first blow. He marched into Saxony, and entered Dresden. He there seized
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and published the original state-papers of which he had before privately obtained copies, in order to justify his march into Saxony. The Saxon army retired to the famous camp of Pirna, by nature one of the strongest in Europe. The Prussians presently found it to be impregnable. They therefore determined to blockade it; and the king, in this interval, joined the army he had sent into Bohemia; where he fought and gained the battle of Lowositz, against an army of Austrians, who were marching to the relief of the camp at Pirna. The Saxons, despairing of relief, at last endeavoured to escape; but their general was ignorant of the country, and they were soon surrounded by the Prussians. The captive army consisted of seventeen thousand men, with upwards of 80 pieces of cannon: the officers gave their honour not to serve again against the Prussians as long as the war should continue: the king of Poland was glad to be permitted to retire to Warsaw. Before this time the Prussians had formed an alliance with the English; and during the winter of 1756 to 1757, the Austrians had sufficient address to be thoroughly reconciled to their ancient enemies the French, and to draw them as well as the Russians, the Swedes, and the empire, into the war against the Prussians. Whilst these negotiations were carrying on, the king of Prussia remained at Dresden, where the queen of Poland resided, who continually made him the strongest professions of friendship, but secretly corresponded with the Austrians. This was at last discovered by examining a box of puddings coming from Bohemia, which were found to be stuffed with letters. At this time our author says, that his enemies 'had recourse to a means of which history does not furnish any example among secular princes. The Saxon officers were ordered to disregard the parole of honour they had given to the Prussians, not to serve any more against them, and several officers were mean enough to obey. In the ages of ignorance we meet with popes who released subjects from the oath of fidelity they had sworn to their sovereigns; we read of a cardinal, Julien Cesarini, who obliged a Ladislaus, king of Hungary, to violate the peace he had sworn to maintain with Soliman. Till now, the authorising of perjury had been confined to ambitious and implacable pontiffs, but had never been adopted by kings, among whom truth and honour ought to be found, though they were banished from the rest of the world. If I dwell on such instances as these, it is because they characterise the determined spirit of animosity and rage which reigned during this war, and which distinguish it from all others.'

The next chapter contains the history of the campaign of 1757. In it was fought the battle of Prague, one of the most bloody

bloody, that had taken place in this century. The Austrians, who were beaten, lost 24,000 men, of whom 5000 were prisoners, 11 standards, and 60 pieces of cannon. Our royal author says, with a pleasing sensibility, 'The loss of the Prussians amounted to 18,000 combatants, without reckoning marshal Schwerin, who alone was worth more than 10,000 men. His death caused the laurels of victory to wither, since they were purchased with blood which was more precious. Notwithstanding his great age, he still preserved all the fire of his youth. Seeing, with indignation, some Prussians repulsed, he seized on the colours, put himself at the head of his regiment, led it on to the charge, and exhibited wonderful efforts of bravery; but as there were not at that time any troops to support him, he was overpowered and killed; thus terminating a glorious life by a death which shed over it a fresh lustre.' How honourable to the deceased general, as well as to the surviving monarch, is such a generous tribute of applause! After this victory the Prussians formed the blockade of Prague, and the king went to head the army that was opposed to marshal Daun. Another body of Prussians, under general Meyer, having made an irruption into the empire, the king observes 'that the elector of Bavaria, and several other princes to whom this irruption gave uneasiness, sent deputies to the king to treat of their interests. In short, all the empire would have abandoned the cause of the empress queen, if one of those revolutions common in war, and which fortune in her sportive humour frequently brings about, had not interrupted the prosperity of the Prussians. We shall see, in the continuation of this war, how frequently those vicissitudes took place which, from time to time, equally destroyed the hopes of the Prussians and the Imperialists.' This refers to the battle of Kolin. 'The king, finding so many enemies almost overwhelming him, was there obliged to attack the Austrians. He lost the battle, together with 8000 of his best troops. Had it not been for this misfortune, he adds, the princes of the empire would have sued for permission to be neutral; the French would probably have proceeded no further with their operations in Germany; the duke of Cumberland might have been succoured; the Swedes would have become pacific, and even the court of Petersburg would have stooped to make a few reflections. But the rash courage of his general, M. de Mannstein, occasioned his defeat, and destroyed all these prospects. This event obliged the Prussians to raise the siege of Prague. — Next follows a long detail of marches and countermarches, of the loss of the Prussian detachment under M. de Puttkammer at Gabel, and of the city of Zittau. These two misfortunes the king attributes to the misconduct of the prince of Prussia; who, he says, became

ill and languished till he died: other writers have said, of a broken heart, occasioned by the severe reflexions of the king his brother. At this time some original letters from the queen of Poland to his enemies fell into the hands of the king, which he sent back to Dresden to be shewn to her.

We now come to a short account of the campaign of the duke of Cumberland, the plan of which is represented as having been originally formed by some ignorant Hanoverian lawyers, in direct opposition to one which had been sent over to George the Second by our author. The following is the account given of some occurrences at the battle of Hastenbeck, where the duke of Cumberland commanded. 'The following day the French attacked his left, passing through the ditch at the bottom of the wood, and carried the battery of the centre of the allies. The hereditary prince of Brunswick retook it sword in hand, and shewed, by this first attempt, that nature destined him to be a hero. At the same time a Hanoverian colonel, called Breitenbach, takes upon himself to act of his own accord, collects together the first battalions he meets with, enters the wood, attacks the French in the rear, drives them before him, and seizes upon their cannon and colours: every body considers the battle as gained by the allies: M. d'Etrées, who sees his troops routed, orders a retreat; the duke of Orleans opposes it; at last, to the great astonishment of all the French army, they are informed that the duke of Cumberland is in full march, and bending his course towards Hameln. The hereditary prince was obliged to abandon the battery which he had retaken with so much glory; and the retreat was made with so great precipitation, that the brave colonel Breitenbach, who had behaved so well in this engagement, was forgotten. This deserving officer remained alone master of the field of battle, and quitted it at night to join the army, carrying his trophies to the duke, who wept with chagrin, at having in the evening precipitately quitted a field of battle for which there was no longer any contest.' Such is the account Frederick gives of this battle, which eventually brought about the convention at Closter Seven, the next important event related. The negotiations for this convention were carried on by count Lynar, a minister of the Danish court. Our author says, 'About this time were intercepted by the Prussian army some letters from count Lynar to the count de Reufs. These two men were of the sect called Pietists. Count Lynar, speaking to his friend of this negociation, says, "The idea which arose in my mind of bringing about this convention, was a celestial inspiration: the Holy Ghost gave me sufficient force to stop the progress of the French arms, as Joshua formerly stopped the sun. God, all powerful, who holds the uni-

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verse

verse in his hands, made use of such an unworthy being as myself to save Lutheran blood, that precious Hanoverian blood which was about to be shed." The misfortune of it was, that count Lynar received applauses from no one but himself. We will leave him with Joshua and the sun, to return to more important objects.'

Soon after this was fought the battle of Rossbach, in which the French were vanquished, with the loss of 10,000 men, of whom 7000 were made prisoners. But the king says that, properly speaking, this victory procured for him only the liberty of going in search of fresh dangers in Silesia. In his absence from that province, the Austrians had taken Schweidnitz with all the garrison, had defeated the prince de Bevern's army, and taken Breslaw. Having reanimated the troops by his conversation, as well as by liberally supplying them with wine, he attacked the Austrians at Leuthen, and gave them a complete overthrow. By this defeat, and in the capture of Breslaw, they lost 41447 men. After this important victory the king proceeded to the siege of that city, with an army of 14,000 men; and he retook it, together with its garrison of 17,000. During the events we have been relating, 100,000 Russians had marched into Prussia. The Prussian general Lehwald, with 24,000 men, attacked them in their camp at Jögerndorf, but was repulsed. However, the Russians soon evacuated Prussia, and marched back to the frontiers of Poland, keeping possession only of the city of Memel. At the same time the Swedes marched into Pomerania; where they seized on several places, as the king could not supply troops to make head against such a multiplicity of enemies. Thus ended this very eventful campaign.—Mr. Pitt being about this time placed at the head of the British ministry, our author takes occasion to honour him with a very handsome eulogium; and says it was by his advice George the Second requested prince Ferdinand of Brunswick might take place of the duke of Cumberland in the command of the Hanoverian troops. We are then brought acquainted with the court-intrigues of the different belligerent powers relative to the continuation of the war.

The campaign of 1758 was opened by prince Ferdinand. With 30,000 Hanoverians, who, three months before had been ready to lay down their arms at Cloister Seven, he had no less a task to perform than to drive 80,000 French out of Lower Saxony and Westphalia. We have not room to relate particularly his brilliant successes. Suffice it to say that our author, without the least apparent envy or jealousy, bestows the warmest encomiums on that commander, and represents his achievements as honourable and glorious in the highest degree. During the
course

course of his campaign he was joined by twelve thousand English under the duke of Marlborough.

The king, during this period, was not idle. He turned the blockade of Schweidnitz into a regular siege, and at last succeeded in conquering it. The siege of Olmutz, which followed, ended very differently. A considerable Prussian convoy, together with the treasure of the army, was intercepted by the Austrians. This obliged the king to retreat from Olmutz, and to go with part of his army to attack the Russians, who were marched into his territories. He met them at Zorndorf, and defeated them. The Prussians that day lost 1200 men; the Russians lost 2000 men prisoners, and 15,000 dead on the field, as the Prussian horse gave no quarter. The king was soon after surprised at night, and beat out of his camp at Hochkirchen, by marshal Daun, who gained a complete victory over the Prussians. The king and almost all his generals were wounded; and marshal Keith, prince Francis of Brunswick, and general Geist, with three thousand others, were killed. On this occasion, as a reward for beating the Prussian heretics, marshal Daun received from his holiness at Rome a consecrated sword and cap. The Prussian generals, during this campaign, had effectually kept at bay the Swedes and the troops of the empire.—The third volume of the Berlin edition concludes with an account of the king's ineffectual endeavours to induce the Turks to attack the Austrians.

In the next campaign of 1759, the allies, under prince Ferdinand and the hereditary prince of Brunswick, were almost every where successful against the French. The most important victory was that at Minden, so glorious to the English infantry. The king was almost every where unfortunate. He says the Prussians must have been ruined in this campaign, had their enemies known as well how to profit by their victories as they did how to obtain them. The Russians defeated the Prussian general Wedel, who lost near five thousand men. After which the king attempted, without success, to prevent the junction of the Russians and Austrians at Franckfort. The battle of Kunersdorf followed, in which the Prussians were at first successful, but owing to a most trivial occurrence, the victory was completely gained by the Russians, though with the loss of 24,000 men. The king received a contusion, and being the last to retire, very narrowly escaped being made a prisoner. He says, that after this defeat the Prussians were so dispersed and dismayed, that had their enemies pursued them immediately, they would infallibly have put an end to the war. Being now in almost a desperate situation, he resolved no longer to act systematically, but being surrounded by such a variety of enemies,

mies, he determined to attack the first that might present himself. The next misfortune the Prussians experienced was the loss of Dresden, with all their magazines, which was increased by a severe fit of illness that disabled the king from acting. Soon after, 16 battalions and 35 squadrons were surrounded by the Austrians, and laid down their arms; and, in the next engagement, the brave Prussian general Dierecke, and three battalions, were made prisoners. Whose mind but that of the great Frederick would not have been overwhelmed by such an accumulation of misfortunes, and of formidable enemies? He never once thought of any disgraceful submission. On the contrary, it appears by his private correspondence, which we shall examine in the course of these volumes, that he constantly lived in the resolution of destroying himself rather than consent to an inglorious peace; and it has been said, that he always carried arsenic about him, to make use of for this purpose in case he should be taken prisoner.

With so much obstinacy was the war conducted on both sides, that this campaign may be said to have been continued through the whole winter. In the course of it, the king endeavoured, at most of the European courts, to lessen the number of his enemies by negotiation. But he soon found that he had two allies only, valour and perseverance, which could enable him to bring this war to an honourable conclusion. The empress of Russia seemed to be as sanguine to get possession of Prussia as the empress of Germany to recover Silesia. At the opening of the year 1760, he found his army had lost most of its old officers and soldiers, and that it consisted principally of Saxon peasants and deserters, wretchedly commanded. However, he endeavoured to inspire them with courage and confidence, by propagating favourable prophecies, and adopting every other allowable measure by which the vulgar are to be deceived. General Fouquet, at the head of 8000 Prussians, defended himself near Landshut with the greatest courage and ability against a very much superior enemy; but was at last wounded and taken. This defence the king compares to that of Leonidas at Thermopylæ. In consequence of this victory the Austrians are represented as having committed every kind of atrocious barbarity.—About this time the heat was so excessive, that in one day 80 Prussians fell down dead in full march; and the Austrians in all probability lost more in the same manner. The army of the former consisted of 30,000 men, that of the latter of 90,000. The method the king adopted to prevent an attack was by perpetually shifting the situation of his army. This as constantly obliged the enemy to change their plans and arrangements, which in so large an army took up much time. For
many

many days they continued marching so close to each other that a stranger would have taken them for one army. The Russians, against whom prince Henry was opposed with another army, were 80,000 strong. After a long detail of manoeuvres and marches, the battle of Lignitz is described, where the Austrian general Laudon was defeated, with the loss of 10,000 men, who lay in heaps on the field of battle. To divert the views of a considerable detachment of Russians, the king wrote a pretended letter to his brother relative to an attack: it was carried by a peasant, who was to suffer himself to be taken by the enemy. This manoeuvre answered exceedingly well. In the mountains the Austrians and Prussians encamped so near to each other that their out-posts were quite contiguous. Instead of cannonading each other, which would have led to nothing decisive, they mutually directed the patrols to their posts when they happened to lose their way. At this time a detachment from the Russian and Austrian armies marched against and took Berlin, which they laid under contribution; and soon after the king found himself so circumstanced, that he says he was obliged to stake the fate of Prussia on a single battle. This battle was that of Torgau, where marshal Daun was wounded, and the king's breast was grazed by a ball. The Prussians gained the victory with the loss of 15,000 men. The Austrians lost 20,000. At the conclusion of the engagement, which was at night, the king perceived some great fires in the forest close to which the battle was fought, and sent some hussars to enquire their object. They brought back an account that they observed round those fires some soldiers in blue and others in white. Upon sending officers to make a farther enquiry, it was found that some soldiers of both armies had fled to this wood for refuge, had agreed to a neutrality till the fortune of the day should be decided, and then to surrender themselves to the victors: a fact, the king observes, unprecedented in history. A ludicrous instance of the power of terror over the human mind occurred in this campaign. The Russians and Swedes had sent a combined fleet to besiege Colberg. The Prussian general Werner, contrived with great bravery to surprise the assailants, and to throw himself into the city. The next morning he presented himself on the banks of the Baltus. 'Through an incredible effect of terror the fleet weighs anchor, sets sail, and goes far off to sea. It was doubtless reserved for M. de Werner to rout a fleet with a few squadrons of hussars.' The sudden and wonderful change which sometimes takes place in a national character may be observed in this war. So unimportant a figure did the Swedes make, that the king tells us, they gave him so little trouble, and the victories over them were so easily won, as not to be

worth transmitting to posterity. This was the same nation which, under Gustavus Vasa, Gustavus Adolphus, and Charles the Twelfth, filled the world with the fame and terror of their arms. As to the allies they were this year rather unsuccessful. The principal event was their loss of Cassel; and in the course of the campaign they were joined by a farther reinforcement from England of 7000 men. At this time died George the Second. Our author only observes, that 'this prince, among other good qualities, possessed an heroic firmness, so that his allies could rely upon him with the utmost confidence.' The negotiation of the Prussian ambassador at Constantinople appeared now to be taking a favourable turn; but it produced no other good effect than to alarm the enemy.

The campaign of 1761 in Silesia, where the king commanded, was not favourable to the Prussians, nor attended with any signal exploits. The Russians and Austrians having again succeeded in effecting a junction, the king fortified himself very strongly in his camp at Bunzelwitz. The enemy sat down before it, and deliberated many days on attacking him. But the Russians had already been artfully led into so much hard service, that the Austrians could not induce them to join in this hazardous enterprize; though one day, in a moment of intoxication, their general had fixed upon a time for the attempt. General Laudon had the good fortune to surprise the city of Schweidnitz, the loss of which the king severely felt. In Pomerania the Prussians were very unfortunate. The Russians, after a long siege, took Colberg; but the Swedes were every where routed by the Prussian general Belling. In Saxony prince Henry was opposed to marshal Daun, and it was with great difficulty that the former kept his ground in that country. Prince Ferdinand, at the head of the allies, was the only general who concluded this campaign without having experienced considerable losses. At the end of it, the king says, that he found his affairs in almost a desperate condition, and there was every appearance that the kingdom of Prussia would very shortly be overwhelmed. In the course of this year the barber of the cham of Tartary was sent as an ambassador to the king, with an offer of some auxiliary troops. In that country, the man who is most about the sovereign's person is looked upon as the most dignified. This offer was readily accepted, and the troops were levied, but were never made use of; for, on the 8th of June, 1762, when the kingdom of Prussia was thought by every one to be brought to the brink of ruin, it was relieved by the death of the empress of Russia. The king had obtained the friendship of her unfortunate successor, Peter the Third, at the time when he was only duke of Holstein. The first proof that the
emperor

emperor gave of his retaining the same regard for the king was by immediately recalling the Russian troops that were serving with the Austrians. Soon after they concluded a treaty for mutual assistance. The Russians were to serve against the Austrians, and the Prussians were to assist the new emperor in his intended war against Denmark.—The picture which the king gives of Peter the Third is clearly drawn by the hand of a partial friend. He says that he very frequently and affectionately forewarned this ill-fated monarch of the conspiracy which ended in his untimely ruin. There was no making him believe it to be possible. He even at last forbade the subject to be mentioned. At this time the flame of war spread itself into Spain and Portugal.—The account here given of lord Bute and his politics is very unfavourable. So very confident was the empress of Germany that one short campaign more would bring about the destruction of Prussia, that she had made a considerable reduction in her army, out of mere economy. The death only of one woman put an end to all these sanguine expectations; and made the Swedes glad of a peace. 'On what do human affairs depend? The most minute springs influence and change the fate of empires. Such are the sports of chance, which, mocking the vain wisdom of mortals, raise the hopes of some, in order to depress the expectations of others!'

In the campaign of 1762 the king continued to command the army in Silesia, and was joined by 20,000 of those Russians who had been fighting against him in so many bloody contests. But he had scarcely made any use of them, before the revolution in Russia, and the death of the emperor, caused them to be recalled. The king had every reason to fear that they were about to resume their old enmity; but as soon as the empress found that the king did not attempt to detain or disarm those troops, she gave him to understand that she did not mean to recommence hostilities against him. The principal event of the campaign in these parts, after the departure of the Russians, was the siege and obstinate defence of Schweidnitz. In the end, that city, together 9000 men, fell into the hands of the Prussians. In these parts where prince Ferdinand commanded, seconded by the marquis of Granby, the arms of the allies were crowned with the most brilliant success. Cassel was at last retaken. In Saxony prince Henry commanded, and obtained a glorious victory over the Austrians and the troops of the empire. In the actions of this commander the king says, 'connoisseurs will remark that happy mixture of prudence and boldness, so rare and so desirable, which unites and assembles the greatest perfections that nature can grant for the formation of a great warrior.' The Prussians, at the end of this campaign, made a successful in-

load into the territories of several of those princes of the empire that were their enemies. The Prussian hussars appeared at the very gates of Ratisbon, by which many of the deputies at the diet held there were so much frightened as to fly. Several princes sued for peace, and promised immediately to withdraw their contingents from the army of the empire. At the end of this year preliminaries of peace were signed by the French and English. The king says, that lord Bute might have gloriously dictated the terms of peace to the enemy; but that on the contrary, he shamefully abandoned the Prussian interest in the course of the negociation, and even privately acted as their enemy at the court of Petersbourg. All the British light troops, that had served under prince Ferdinand, were immediately disbanded in Germany by orders from home. Three thousand of them entered into the service of Prussia. To them the king added some Prussians and Brunswickers, with an intention to surprise the French garrison in Wesel. This alarmed the ministry at Versailles with the fear of an invasion in Flanders, and induced them to give up to the king all that they had taken from him in Germany.

At the conclusion of this history, the author indulges himself in several political and sentimental reflections on the unexpected and wonderful manner in which Prussia got through this war, attacked as it was by the forces of Austria, Russia, France, Sweden, and all the Holy Roman Empire. He reckons that Prussia lost in the war 180,000 men, besides those destroyed by the ravages of the Russians. viz. 20,000 in the kingdom of Prussia, 6000 in Pomerania, 4000 in the New March, and 3000 in the electorate of Brandenburg. The Russian troops were reckoned to have lost 120,000 men; the Austrians 140,000. The French made their loss amount to 200,000, the English with their allies to 160,000, the Swedes to 25000, and the troops of the circles to 28000.—We shall not add any thing to these facts, but only remark, that by this calculation, the war undertaken against Prussia brought 886,000 human beings to untimely deaths; and that, at the conclusion of hostilities, the territory of that kingdom was precisely the same as at their commencement. Let this authentic fact sink deep into the minds of ambitious kings and enterprising ministers!

(To be continued.)

An Essay on Shooting. Small 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Cadell.

WHILE we expected only a few rules for sportsmen, enlarged by ejaculations on the healthfulness of exercise, and the delight of the sport, we found a regular, if not a perfectly scientific essay; where the subject is treated in a manner at once rational, perspicuous, and just. The manufacture
of

of gun-barrels, and every article employed in shooting, is explained with precision and propriety. Those parts which relate to the qualities of barrels, and the various attempts at improving the piece, either by enlarging the chamber, rifling the barrel, or altering the situation or direction of the touch-hole, may be read with advantage by many who are already even moderately skilful. Our author advances a few positions which are a little extraordinary, but they are well supported; and from his general knowledge of the subject, we are willing to rely on his decisions. His experiments on barrels of different lengths are new; and as they are short we shall transcribe them.

‘ We have at different times compared barrels of all the intermediate lengths between 28 and 40 inches, and of nearly the same caliber, that is to say from 22 to 26; and these trials were made both by firing the pieces from the shoulder, and from a firm block at an equal distance, and with equal weights of the same powder and of the same shot.

‘ To avoid every possibility of error, the quires of paper at which we fired, were fixed against planks, instead of being placed against a wall. From these trials frequently repeated, we found that the shot pierced an equal number of sheets, whether it was fired from a barrel of 28, 30, 32, 34, 36, 38, or 40 inches in length. Nay, more, we have compared two barrels of the same caliber, but one of them 33, and the other 66 inches long, by repeatedly firing them in the same manner as the others, at different distances from 45 to 100 paces, and the results have always been the same, i. e. the barrel of 33 inches drove its shot through as many sheets of paper as that of 66 did. The conclusion from all this is, that the difference of ten inches in the length of the barrel, which seems to be more than is ever insisted upon among sportsmen; produces no sensible difference in the range of the piece; and therefore, that every one may please himself in the length of his barrel, without either detriment or advantage to the range.’

We cannot, without a little exception, allow our author’s unqualified conclusion in another part of his work, that ‘ the powder is completely inflamed before the ball or shot arrives at the mouth of the shortest barrel ever employed.’ In some experiments formerly tried with a common fowling-piece, we remember to have picked up many grains of uninflamed powder after the explosion, which appeared to be genuine gunpowder by exploding in a candle. The quantity was, however, very small.

Our author does not think there is any great difference in the ‘ shot ’ of fowling-pieces, for in various experiments he found the same barrel scatter the shot as differently in differ-

ent trials as any other gun would have done. Guns of a small caliber also do not, he thinks, carry their shot more compactly to an object at any given distance, than those of a large caliber. The following piece of advice ought probably to be more generally known.

‘ Would sportsmen only forbear to determine upon the merits or defects of their pieces, until they had given them a patient and impartial trial, by varying the quantity of powder and shot in different ways; we are inclined to think there would be fewer complaints made of the modern fowling pieces. We can assert from our own knowledge, that several gentlemen have hastily parted with their pieces, and thrown a censure upon the maker, which after-experience proved to be undeserved; and we have prevented several of our acquaintance from doing the same, by prevailing upon them to make a farther trial with different charges. The chief source of error appears to be that of overcharging; and it was generally by correcting this, that we succeeded in removing the bad opinion which had been entertained of many pieces. Every barrel, according to its caliber and weight, has a certain quantity of lead, and a suitable one of powder, which will be attended with greater certainty and effect than any others; and these must be determined by repeated trials. If we increase the quantity of shot above this, we lessen the force of the discharge, and at the same time increase the recoil; and if we increase the charge of powder, that of the shot remaining the same, we also increase the recoil, and disperse the shot much more than before. In every species of fire-arms, large charges of powder are found to disperse the shot very much, whilst with smaller charges than are generally employed, it is thrown more steadily and closely. If the object, therefore, which we are about to fire at, be at too great a distance for the shot to take effect, and it happens that we cannot approach nearer to it, we ought not to increase the quantity of powder with a view to the shot being thereby thrown farther, as, by so doing, the increase of the range will be very trifling, whilst the dispersion of the shot will be greatly increased. The only expedient in this case is to employ shot of a larger size, the quantity of it, and of the powder being kept the same as has been already found best suited to the piece.

‘ After what has been said in the preceding chapter, we cannot venture to determine what degree of closeness or dispersion in the shot, will entitle any piece to the name of a good or a bad one; but would observe, that if a fowling-piece be charged with an ounce of N^o 4. patent shot, and a suitable quantity of powder, throws 66 grains into a sheet of paper 18 inches by 24. at the distance of 50 paces, we may consider it as very capital, although these are only about one-third of the charge; and that the same piece continuing to be fired at the same mark and distance, will not in the mean of four or five successive discharges, throw 36 grains

grains into the paper; in short, that when due attention is paid to finding the suitable quantity of powder and of shot, one piece will perform nearly as well as another.'

Our author's instructions for shooting, for training and managing dogs, as well as his observations on different kinds of game, with such advice as a pretty extensive knowledge of the manners of each kind may suggest to the sportsman, are in general very just and proper. On the whole, we can safely recommend this work to sportsmen; for they will find in it much useful instruction, and much casual information.

The Rudiments of Ancient Architecture, in Two Parts. With a Dictionary of Terms. Illustrated with Ten Plates. 8vo. 5s. Taylor.

THESE Rudiments are not improperly styled 'notes or minutes of what is necessary to be known by one whose desire is rather general information than the minutiae of the science.' They relate almost entirely to Grecian architecture, for the more modern proportions only are added from sir William Chambers.

The work consists of a sufficiently accurate description of the five orders, chiefly from Vitruvius, with an account from the same author of the rules of the ancients in building their edifices or temples, the distribution of the columns and their diminutions. This assistance will be found very useful in visiting the architectural remains, as it will enable the traveller to appropriate the scattered columns and bring the suitable fragments together on his drawing. A dictionary of the terms is subjoined. The frontispiece exhibits the five different orders in a line, that the relative proportions may be more obvious: and in the title-page is a good portrait of the late Mr. Stuart, commonly called Athenian Stuart. There are nine other plates representing the bases and capitals, with the cornices, friezes and architrave of the different orders; the various mouldings used in architecture, with two plates of their different application to capitals, bases, and pedestals. Indeed, in every respect the work deserves the title prefixed to it.

Of the execution of a compilation much need not be said: accuracy, a proper choice, and a judicious arrangement, are the chief qualities which deserve praise. If we were to object to any part, it would be to the author's retaining the fancies of the ancient architects, respecting the origin of the columns, the capital, and the base; and their refined allusions to the male strength of the Doric, the matronly proportions of the Ionic,

Ionic, and the virgin slenderneſs of the Corinthian order. If theſe fancies are retained to aſſiſt the memory of the ſtudent, they may be allowed; but they are urged often with a ridiculous gravity, which is in a moment confuted, or which immediately confutes itſelf. If, for inſtance, as our author alleges, in the infancy of building, in the rude architype of a houſe, a tree was the column; and the ſtone neceſſary to preſerve it from rotting, gave the idea of the baſe, or its expanding branches that of a capital, how happened it that the earlier ſpecimens of Doric columns had no baſe, or why were not the firſt capitals ornamented with leaves? If the tryglyphs were the rafters of the houſe ſplit by the weather, and adorned by drops from the reſemblance to drops of rain, how could they ever be placed under the crown and cyma of the cornice, which muſt be itſelf the covering? In reality, the column wanted no architype to ſuggeſt it; and the firmneſs neceſſary for the lower part, and the expansion to give a ſecure reſt to the cornice, were improvements ſo obvious, that we need not look for any origin. In the larger columns and in the earlier ages, when they were much ſhorter, the baſe was leſs neceſſary, and conſequently omitted: the expansion above was not required, and it was very ſmall. When the diameter was leſſened as in the Ionic, the expansion was more requiſite; and when it was ſtill farther leſſened, it was neceſſary, for the ſake of ſtrength, that it ſhould begin at a greater diſtance from the top: the ornamenting this lengthened expansion, the frize of the capital, muſt immediately occur to the architect who had diminiſhed the diameter from a wiſh only to make it more elegant. We ſhall ſelect a ſhort ſpecimen to preſerve, what we think a juſt opinion, relating to the Tuſcan order, and to give ſome idea of our author's perſpicuity,

* Of the Tuſcan order little hiſtoric can be ſaid; its plainneſs of ornament gives it the firſt place in moſt treatiſes: there is no regular example of this among the remnants of antiquity. Vitruvius in an indiſtinct manner has mentioned the general proportions, but through his whole book does not refer to one ſtructure of this order. The Trajan column at Rome is reckoned of the Tuſcan order, though it has eight diameters for the height; and the capital is certainly more ornamented than is conſiſtent with Tuſcan plainneſs. It is ſomewhat ſingular there ſhould be no remains of this order; and were it not for what little Vitruvius has written of it, it certainly might have been loſt to the moderns. The plainneſs of its appearance, no doubt, cauſed it to be neglected at Rome; but in no other place has been diſcovered any truly ancient example.

* Of the Doric we have many remains of very ancient date, which leads me to think the Tuſcan is no other than the Doric
more

more simplified, or deprived of its ornaments to suit certain purposes, where strength and cheapness were wanted; nevertheless it is applied with propriety and effect, to the entrance of cities, large gateways, and in military architecture, where a massive strength only is required.'

The Modes of Quotation used by the Evangelical Writers explained and vindicated. By the Rev. Dr. Henry Owen, F. R. S. 4to. 10s. 6d. sewed. Payne and Sons.

INDEPENDENT of the internal evidence of Christianity, the great support of its divine original is the completion of the ancient prophecies. It seems to have been the great object of the Evangelists, particularly of those who wrote chiefly for the service of the Jewish converts, to point out this intimate connection between events of the Life of Christ and the prophecies recorded in the Old Testament; and the completion is generally introduced by peculiar phrases; 'As it is written, that it may be fulfilled,' &c. The quotations, introduced by these formulæ, Dr. Owen chiefly examines, with a view of showing that the Evangelists have neither added nor diminished; that they have neither changed the sense, the tenour, or the implication of the ancient prophecies. He first compares them fairly, to shew the real difference between the Evangelists and the Prophets: he next accounts for these differences, and concludes with showing that the prophecies are justly applied, and fully prove what they were designed to establish.

When two works are to be reconciled, it is at least necessary to fix on the standard of comparison, especially where the editions of one of these differ in some essential points. Dr. Owen thinks that the Evangelists employed the Septuagint, as by this means they avoided the cavils which might have been made to their own translations, and recommended to the Hellenistic Jews the work, which if examined would contribute to confirm their faith. But the Septuagint of that period was undoubtedly more accurate than this which we now possess. The discovery of the Alexandrian MS. shows the imperfection of the Vatican; and, if we could compare our present edition with more ancient MSS. the variations would be more considerable: this at least we have a right to suppose, by those passages which occur in the quotations of the fathers from the older copies of the Septuagint. Besides, as the translation of the Seventy is not in every part of equal value, Dr. Owen supposes that the Evangelists may have occasionally translated from the original; and in this way some varieties may have occurred; this supposition is confirmed by occasionally referring to the Hebrew.

Our

Our author, with these allowances, proceeds to the different quotations, and examines, in seventy-six different passages, the coincidences and the variations of the quotations of the Evangelists, and the words of the Prophets, as they are at present in our hands. In twenty-four of these, the quotations are from different Evangelists, which betray no inconsistency, for generally the words, and very often the order of the words are the same: the sense is invariably consistent. As the Evangelists wrote for different persons, and with different views, it has happened that a part only of a prophecy is quoted by one, while the whole prophecy is transcribed by another. Of the seventy-six quotations, sixty are conformable to some of the copies of the Septuagint in our hands; several more come near to them in the sense, though not in the words; and, in some instances, the Septuagint is evidently corrupted, probably by design of the Jews, who, not able to confute the facts, endeavoured to destroy the connexion between them and the prophecies. In the following passage, the design of the corruption seems to have been to exclude the Baptist, and to destroy the connexion between him and Christ.

‘ No. XX.

‘ *Matth. xi. 10. Γράβειται* Ἰδοὺ, ἐγὼ ἀποστέλλω τὸν ἄγγελόν μου πρὸς προσώπῳ σου, ὃς κατασκευάσει τὴν ὁδὸν σου ἵνα ἔμπερσθῇς σου.

‘ *Mat. i. 2. Γράβειται* Ἰδοὺ ἐγὼ ἀποστέλλω τὸν ἄγγελόν μου πρὸς πρόσωπῳ σου, ὃς κατασκευάσει τὴν ὁδὸν σου ἵνα ἔμπερσθῇς σου.

‘ *Luc. vii. 27. Γράβειται* Ἰδοὺ, ἐγὼ ἀποστέλλω τὸν ἄγγελόν μου πρὸς προσώπῳ σου, ὃς κατασκευάσει τὴν ὁδὸν σου ἵνα ἔμπερσθῇς σου.

‘ *Malac. iii. 1. Ἰδοὺ, ἐγὼ ἐξαποστέλλω τὸν ἄγγελόν μου, καὶ ἐπιβλέψω* τῷ ἰδοὺ πρὸς προσώπῳ μου. A. lxx.

• The present Hebrew and the Sept. version are here conformable to each other; and both extremely different from the Evangelists. But there is great reason to suspect, that the Hebrew was first corrupted, and that the Greek was afterwards adjusted to it. And if we translate the quotation into Hebrew, and then compare it with the present text, it will be easy to perceive how that corruption happened. The Evangelists seem to have read thus—*וּפָנָה דַּרְכָּךְ לִפְנֵי; הִנְנִי שֹׁלַח מַלְאָכִי לִפְנֵיךְ*—which Tertullian has translated as follows: “*Ecce ego mitto angelum meum ante faciem tuam (id est, Christi), qui præparabit viam tuam ante te.*” *Adv. Judæos*, § 9. Vide quoque Euseb. *Dem. Evang. lib. ix. p. 430.*

• Consult here again the various readings in St. Mark’s and St. Luke’s Gospels, and it will readily appear, that several copies were purposely altered to the tenor of the Hebrew text or of the Greek version:’

Again, *Isaiah xlii. 1—4*, compared with *Matth. xii. 18—21*, there is another evident corruption, by the insertion of Jacob

cob and Israel, to divert the application from the Messiah. Irenæus quotes the passage as Matthew has done; and other alterations have been made, as appears from Justin Martyr, who quotes the text twice:

‘ No. XL.

‘ Matth. xxvii. 9, 10. Τότε ἐκλαλήθη τὸ ῥηθὲν—Καὶ ἔλαβον τὰ τρεῖς κοῦρα ἀργύρια, τὰ τμήνη τὰ τιμημέναι, ἐν ἱταμῶσιν ἀπὸ οὐκ Ἰσραὴλ. Καὶ ἔδωκαν αὐτὰ εἰς τὸν ἀγρὸν τῆς κερσαμῖνος, καθὰ συνέταξι μοι Κύριος.

‘ Zachar. xi. 13. Καὶ εἶπε Κύριος πρὸς μὲ· Κάθις αὐτὸς εἰς τὸ χωματόπεδον, καὶ σκέψαι αὐτὸ εἰ δάκρυόν ἐστιν, ἐν τρέψει ἰδοιμάσθην ὑπὲρ αὐτῶν. Καὶ ἔλαβον τὰς τρεῖς κοῦρας ἀργύρας, καὶ ἔββαλον αὐτὰς εἰς ὁὐκὸς Κυρίου εἰς τὸ χωματόπεδον. Alex.

‘ Great as the difference is between these passages, the fault does not lie with the Evangelist.

‘ The Hebrew text is incorrect; and, as it now stands, is ill translated. The version is that of Symmachus, and not the Seventy’s. See An Enquiry into the present State of the Septuagint Version, p. 5, &c.

‘ In that Treatise, I conjectured with regard to the Hebrew, that the genuine reading must have stood thus—
וְאֶשְׁלִיךְ אֹתוֹ אֶל בֵּית הַיֵּצֶד בְּאֶשׁ צוּנִי יְהוָה—
which is now confirmed in the main by some of the most valuable of Dr. Kennicott’s MS. copies. With this corrected Hebrew St. Matthew’s Greek perfectly agrees; if we only take ἔλαβον for the first person singular, and read ἔδωκα for ἔδωκαν, on the authority of one MS. and the Syriac version, and on its congruity with the original prophecy. See Mede’s Works, p. 786.

The additions and omissions are explained by a remark, which is strictly just, viz. that ‘ the Evangelists never load their quotations with *unallied* particulars:’ they are as simple and unadorned in this respect as in their narratives, where an unnecessary circumstance is scarcely ever mentioned. We shall quote but one other passage; for, while we have been giving our author’s sentiments on some disputed points, we have given also sufficient specimens of his manner.

‘ No. XIX.

‘ Matth. ix. 13. Μάθετε τί ἔστιν· Ἐλεος (d) θέλω καὶ ἡ δικαιοσύνη. Vide cap. xii. 7.

‘ Hof. vi. 6. Ἐλεος (e) θέλω καὶ ἡ δικαιοσύνη.

Alex.

(d) Ἐλεος, Cod. Ephrem. Cantab. &c.

(e) Ἐλεος, MS. Pachom. Brit. Mus. 1 B. 2.

‘ These various readings are purposely inserted, as some confirmation of a sentiment I have long entertained, respecting our scriptural MSS. The state of the case, I conceive to have been often this, viz. that when a transcriber of the New Testament had a high notion of the Septuagint version, he adjusted the quotation

quotation to that reading. And, on the contrary, when a transcriber of the Septuagint had a high veneration for the New Testament, he altered that version to the Evangelical reading. Many are the instances which seem to support this conclusion—some of which may hereafter occur.*

Dr. Owen next examines whether the prophecies were justly applied, or in other words, whether they are to be understood as referring to Christ rather than to subjects more nearly connected with the times and the situations of the Prophets. On this point he chiefly refers to other authors; but his own observations are just and valuable. Yet, as the recapitulation refers chiefly to this part of the work, we shall prefer our author's perspicuous summary.

* Of all that has been said this is the sum: that Jesus Christ, whose history we read in the New Testament, was the true Messiah predicted in the Old—that this is manifestly confirmed and ascertained by the exact completion of the several prophecies that went before concerning him—that if some of these prophecies were anciently, by the Jews, either interpreted of, or applied to, other persons and times than those of the Messiah, yet is the sense given them by Christ and his apostles highly to be preferred; for the Jews easily might, and indeed evidently did, mistake the sense of *many* prophecies, which foretold events that were long after to happen; but it was impossible that Christ and his apostles should ever err in the true meaning of *any one*, as they were really endued with supernatural powers, and guided by the influence of that spirit, "which searcheth and knoweth all things, even the deep things of God," 1 Cor. ii. 10. Their power of working miracles plainly proved that "God was with them," and *inspired* as well as strengthened them. Their *inspiration* again as plainly proved, that their interpretation of the prophecies was certain and infallible; not to insist, as a further proof, on their being all throughout punctually accomplished according to the very sense in which they interpreted them.'

We have been always of opinion that the prophecies should be touched with a delicate hand, for too eager rashness in their explanation has been very injurious to religion. Our author's delicacy we must highly commend; yet we suspect that in one or two passages he has urged the coincidence too far. His argument in the 19th number is mentioned rather as an opinion than as an indisputable fact; but an allowance of that kind, in more impetuous hands, might be dangerous; and the corruption of the version of the LXX. by the Jews, though well supported and established, may give occasion to bold and unwarrantable conjecture. Nothing of this kind can, however, be imputed to our author, since the licentiousness of criticism will

above the best founded canons. He seems to have well employed his mature age, and we leave him with the best of comforts, that of a life well and laudably employed in support of that religion which it has been his profession to teach, and in which now is his securest hope.

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Histoire du Gouvernement François, depuis l'Assemblée des Notables tenue le 22 Fevrier, 1787, jusqu'à la Fin de Decembre de la même Année. 8vo. Londres, (Paris) 1788.

THE late events in France have furnished a spectacle at once astonishing, and unexpected. A nation, sunk under the fetters of despotism, has exerted its efforts to shake them off, and has had the address to convert the instruments of tyranny into the supports of freedom. In this state, without degenerating into anarchy; for the occasional licentiousness of individuals, intoxicated with the unaccustomed spirit of liberty, must be overlooked in this general view; without degenerating, we say, into that turbulence and violence, which the absence of authority might occasion*, the kingdom, looking to its former constitution, seriously endeavours to combine what antiquity has rendered in some degree sacred, with what a more particular inquiry into the rights of mankind, or the constitution of the freest nations have taught. A revolution of this kind is an epoch in the history of political institutions, and demands the most serious attention. We have taken up this work as one which begins, if not from the more general causes, from the first events which occurred, and which concealed in their constitution every thing which has followed. A short account, though pretty generally known, will connect the whole.

The liberty of France consisted, as is usual among the northern nations, in its parliaments: their sanction was required to render every act of the king valid; but the fundamental defect arose from attaching the offices of its members to particular families, titles, or situations. This rendered the parliament for many years a screen between the most odious despotism and the people. Their sanction was required; but they were no longer in a condition to refuse it, and, of course, there was no real impediment to what a weak king, or a wicked favourite might chuse to exact. The gradual progress of knowledge, foreign travel, and more attentive enquiry, taught our neighbours that this usurpation of power was neither warranted by the constitution, nor suitable to those rights which were inherent in every individual; but, while the crown was supported by an army, it was neither prudent to attempt any change, nor could the attempt have ended in any thing but destruction. At this period our dispute occurred with America; and the

* See

• Unfortunately this is not quite correct.

French

French minister saw, or thought he saw, that commerce was the wing which had enabled us to soar so high, and that our American colonies formed its first and most useful feathers. He attempted to destroy them, and succeeded; but, in this attempt, he laid the foundation of the ruin of his master's power, by lessening the army, in order to support more effectually the marine, the essential support of his beloved commerce; by increasing the debt beyond the resources of the nation; above all, by inspiring the army, which fought and conquered in America, with the spirit of liberty; and the nation, who shared the glory of the conquest, and participated the honour of emancipating, as they called it, America, with sentiments of the same kind,

To add to the resources, and to support the tottering credit of the kingdom, the assembly of the Notables was convened, a measure which lighted the spark lurking in different breasts, and which gave the last blow to the tyranny of the kings. With this event the present publication opens: we have chosen it, because it appears to give a candid account of what occurred in this memorable year, when, as our author remarks, some more sagacious minds already conceived a presentiment of what would follow, and seem to have acted on one steady and consistent plan in pursuit of it. We hope the same, or an equally impartial author will enable us to pursue the history of this very important revolution.

The Assembly of the Notables, or most distinguished men in the kingdom, was an early institution, which was always had recourse to in the most distressing circumstances. It consisted of archbishops and bishops, various presidents of the different parliaments, and deputies from different states: in short, it formed an adequate representation of the nation. It was convened on the 20th of January 1787, but it did not sit until the 22d of February, since the business to be transacted was not ready: to this delay, which the author attributes to M. de Calonne, he thinks all the misfortunes were owing; for in this period the members had opportunities of conversing with each other, of communicating their complaints, and of being prejudiced by the different reports of errors and mistakes, which in a despotic monarchy seldom reach the provinces. The object of the meeting, they were told by the king, was to improve the revenues; to ascertain their freedom by a more equal partition of taxes; to free commerce from some of its trammels, and to support, as far as possible, the poorer part of the community.

M. de Calonne, says our author, did not appear on the stage with equal advantage. He was presumptuous, trifling, inconsiderate; fond of pleasure, which he preferred to business; of expence, which was seldom directed to any good purpose; of flatterers, by whom he was deceived. In other respects, he had the art of pleasing, a desire of obliging, a boldness in his ideas, extensive views, and more than usual knowledge of the business of administration. He had a quickness which rendered

his conceptions ready, and his elocution easy and graceful, but which often hinders a proper combination, or a profound research, since it is more nearly connected with the vivacity of the imagination, than the solidity of judgment. With respect to the virtues which truly constitute the statesman, and have for their foundation that severity of justice, which is the safest support of the riches of the sovereign, and the fortune of the subject, in M. de Calonne they had not time to expand.* In his discourse he acknowledged the deficiency in the annual revenue to be eighty millions † (about three millions sterling). He traced the deficiency to cardinal Fleuri, asserting that the abbé Terrai found it seventy-four millions, and left it at forty; that M. Necker, when he took the direction of the finances in 1776, estimated it at thirty-seven, and left it at fifty-six; that, within eighteen months, it rose to eighty millions. M. Necker, it is said, offered to disprove the charge, but M. Calonne refused to enter into any discussion, and the king prevented any farther enquiry. The deficiency, which appeared at least to be 130 millions, was very alarming, since in M. de Calonne's administration 600 millions of debt had fallen in *; and it was supposed that he traced the deficit very high to conceal his own faults. The remedy was a general tax on land, from which no one should be exempt, and a stamp act. These were rendered more agreeable to the people, by being accompanied with immunities from some unequal distributions of impost, and from other grievances.

M. de Calonne had not, it seems, that inflexible severity, and steady disinterestedness; which distinguished M. Necker. His speech was published, commented on, criticised, and generally distrusted. The timbre was mentioned so generally as to cause the greatest alarm. We remember receiving letters at that time from Paris, where it was asserted that every paper, designed even for a letter of friendship or affection, was to be stamped: at least every letter which might at any time be adduced in a law process. In the mean time the different committees for the assembly was divided into seven bureaux, at the head of each of which was a prince of the blood; and they consisted of nearly an equal number of each order: these committees, or boards, we say, proceeded in their deliberations; and 'constitutional laws,' the 'laws and principles of the monarchy' were terms often employed, as well as circulated among the people, for the deliberations were unfortunately no secret: they lost nothing of their force or spirit by the communication. In the mean time, intrigue is said to be preparing the fall of M. de Calonne, and the instruments were, 'the zeal of well meaning

† We formerly gave a rule for the reduction of livres into pounds sterling; but a more ready and a sufficient accurate one is to take the half of one-twelfth, neglecting fractions—Thus, one-twelfth of eighty is six nearly, and its half is three. If the fractions be taken it is perfectly accurate.

* The French debt is chiefly in annuities.

people, the frankness of the old cavaliers; particularly the nobility and clergy, whose peculiar privileges were attacked, by those sacrifices designed to render the new taxes more palatable. The nobles opposed the payment of the tax in kind, and would insist on its being paid in money: at the same time they insisted on some accounts which would explain the deficiencies as well as the retrenchments the king designed to make. They began to speak so early in the style of the subjects of a limited monarchy, though they seemed to aim their attacks against the minister, for they saw, that if the taxes were granted, he would be unassailable. It was observed also in favour of the clergy (for the territorial impost, as we shall call it, to distinguish this new tax from the taille, the land-tax, was, we have said, to extend without exception), that they had incurred debts for the free gifts which they had presented to the crown, and it was unjust that they should be taxed by their own will, and against it. The different sacrifices which were to be made to compensate for the new taxes occasioned no less clamour.

At the second session, on the 12th of March, M. Calonne congratulated the assembly on their vigilance and attention, observing, that their remarks on the conduct of the taxes did not affect the principles of the tax; but the Notables, lest they might be supposed to concur with what they disapproved, desired a copy of the speech, when they found their apprehensions without foundation. The second division of the plan was designed to increase the liberty of commerce, and to give it more extent and activity. But even these regulations, which consisted in lowering the taxes, and suppressing the numerous internal custom-houses, a plan on the whole highly advantageous, was received with suspicion. Indeed distrust and fear seem to have actuated them in every step: even the suppression, or rather conversion of the gabelle (the tax on salt), the right of marking iron, &c. propositions highly advantageous, were examined, commented on, and lost. In short, our author endeavours to prove that the members might be good judges, good soldiers, or good priests; but they were not qualified for statesmen, or even financiers. Whatever was the cause, the difficulties became greater, and M. de Calonne appealed to the people, blaming the Notables for their opposition to the plans designed for their relief, since, he told them, no new tax was necessary. This precipitated his fall; but this and M. Necker's justification do not strictly belong to our history.

The third division, which was examined when the Notables resumed their seats on the 15th of April, related to the crown lands, which were of little value in their neglected and impoverished state. But the substance of the representation of the bureaux on this subject is only given, and it is of no general importance. In the general meeting, which took place on April 23d, the king in a beneficent speech lamented the vast deficiency, and promised a more exact oeconomy; but he concluded

cluded with mentioning the timbre, or stamp-tax. The bureaux echoed the speech in their addresses, but they ventured to enquire into the necessity of a new tax; the nature and extent of the proposed savings, and the probable duration of the tax. This boldness did not, however, offend: the king gave as particular an answer as he could, and calculated the increase of income and the retrenchments at 40 millions (more than a million and a half sterling), and regretted exceedingly the necessity of the new imposts. The Notables proceeded in their enquiries; but a suggestion now arose, which in reality was not countenanced by history or precedent, that this assembly was not competent to impose a new tax, but that the states general should be convened. The suggestion seems to have been a political engine, employed by those who looked deeper than the affairs of the moment, and which, at last, brought on the revolution. The proposal was mentioned in the assembly, echoed through the town, and every where received as a new discovery. The Notables, though they perceived their existence near its termination, continued their researches; they found, or they thought they found, that at the end of M. Necker's administration, there was an excess of ten millions annually, while at present the 600 millions, which were fallen in, were not accounted for, and from 130 to 140 millions deficiency was to be supplied. The assembly were the dupes, as it is hinted, of some designing persons, and it was dissolved without effecting any thing. The king complimented them for their attention, and they received it as cordially as if they had occasioned the most salutary reformations.

After the dissolution of the assembly, the council of finance, was established, the free passage of corn from one province to another was allowed, and the corvées (personal services to the lord) were abolished by edict; but the timbre was established by the same power, and it extended to all letters and commissions, for every office and place, either honorary or useful, for every grant, title, or concession; certificates for study; grants under the privy seal; commissions, in the affairs of the king; accounts, and receipts, even those of the rents of the hotel ville; registers; bills of exchange; invoices; certificates; lottery tickets; paper for music; advertisements; the memoirs of counsellors, &c. &c. The improvements in the finance were important ones; for at the end of each year the accounts were to be published, and the deficiencies or excesses would be seen, as well as their several causes; but the weight of the stamp-tax was enormous. The parliament refused to register it, and called in their turn for accounts, till in the discussion which this demand occasioned, it was supposed to be discovered that they also had no right to establish any tax, but that this right resided in the states general. They are blamed by our author for contesting the subject at a time when the enemies of the kingdom were wresting Holland from the alliance of France.

He thinks, for various reasons, that all the differences should have been buried in a war. On the 30th of July the parliament convened the peers, and these joined with them in all their views. At last, on the 5th of August, the king held a bed of justice, where the parliament were obliged to attend, and the edict was registered, notwithstanding their protest was immediately entered, and published with the edict. On the 9th the edict for the reform of the household appeared; but it had little effect in appealing the disturbances, which increased so much that the parliament, on the 15th, was banished to Troyes, and the edict registered by authority, in the chamber of accounts and the court of aids; though each body joined the parliament in their opposition and their protests, and addressed the banished parliament on its firmness, the propriety and judgment of its conduct.

Almost all the parliaments of the kingdom considered the case of the parliament of Paris as their own; and joined in their views, and imitated their conduct. Justice was delayed, and every wheel of government deranged by their banishment; so that some compromise took place. The parliament was recalled; the edicts were withdrawn; and they agreed on their side to register the edict for the prorogation of the second twentieth, which, as well as the first, and the four sous for each livre, was to be levied without reserve or distinction. In this they evidently abandoned their plea, for this last edict was a real tax. At this time the Prussian troops, joined to the terrors of the British fleets, were successful in Holland; and the stadtholder recovered an authority, which our author prophesies he cannot hold long.

In August the parliament of Bourdeaux, for a very different cause, were also banished, and the consequences of the dispute were nearly a repetition of what we have already detailed. The parliament of Paris was scarcely recalled, when they were directed to register a loan to be taken up by gradual instalments, which the minister pretended would, in 1792, render the revenues more than equal to the expences. The whole was 340 millions (a little more than 15 millions sterling). The parliament hesitated, and the minister negotiated; but at last the king went to the house, a measure not singular in the French monarchy, and held what is called a royal session. He came, he said, to teach them their duty, and to recall them to the first principles of their office, which he explained to be merely legislative, without having any influence over the national loans. The session lasted seven hours; the king, the princes of the blood, and the peers were present; and those magistrates who chose to speak were heard with attention. They did not lose this opportunity: among other things, M. d'Epresmenil told the king, that 'the only difference between a bed of justice and a royal session was, that the one possessed the frankness of despotism, while the other was distinguished only by its duplicity.'

The

The edicts were registered; but the duke of Orleans, before the king went away, publicly protested against the legality of the registering: he declared it illegal, and insisted that, after 'deliberating,' should be added, that it was 'registered at the express command of the king.'

The parliament protested against the legality of the royal session; but we do not find that they could support their opinions; and the next day the duke of Orleans, with M. Frettau, and the abbé Sabatier, two of the orators, perhaps the most inflammatory ones, were banished. The king ordered the journals to be brought, and destroyed the protest, forbidding it to be again inserted. The banishment of the prince and the members produced various clamours and remonstrances to the king, which had no effect, till at last they wisely changed their batteries, and turned their attack against lettres de cachet, which had been much abused in the former reign, and had been much employed in the recent transactions. Here they had more ample ground; and the parliament of Bourdeaux came to their assistance: that of Rennes also presented remonstrances, in which they supported the parliament of Paris in all their steps. The exiles were not, however, recalled till the spring of 1788. Towards the end of the year (1787), every thing was quiet: the loans filled; the royal payments were exact. 'The most enlightened part of the inhabitants, adds our author, already perceived that these commotions were not excited by a view of the public good. This idea gained ground insensibly among the different classes of citizens, for whom it was sufficient that good order was established in the finances; that the king was exact in fulfilling his engagements; that the government was mild and moderate; that there was reason to expect to see, in three or four years, the nation assembled, concurring with the sovereign, if it should be guided by proper views, in order to render the kingdom more secure and more glorious.'

This is nearly the account of our author, who, with an evident bias towards monarchy, is, on the whole, candid, and in most respects correct. That his prophecies are not fulfilled cannot be imputed to him as a fault, since the late events, we have said, are such as would have been ranked a few years ago among the physical impossibilities. That they have happened, every friend of liberty rejoices; and every Englishman, who enjoys it, will wish them success; while the more judicious observers will lament the frequent deviations into licentiousness, and perhaps feel some apprehensions that, in their search of liberty, they may at last find its worst representative, democracy.

We mean not to forsake this subject, when we can find proper guides to conduct us in the continuation; in this article, we have chiefly attended to the outline, which we have connected with some care; at the same time preserving the clue, which will lead our readers to understand more perfectly the transactions which daily occur.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

FRENCH AFFAIRS.

Paris Sauvée, ou Recit détaillé des Evénemens qui ont lieu à Paris, depuis le Dimanche, 12 Juillet, 1789, une Heure après Midi jusqu'au Vendredi suivant au Soir. La Grange. Paris.

FROM the crowds of pamphlets which Paris has furnished on the late memorable occasion we have selected this before us, which gives a clear, a consistent, and a probable account of the events during the celebrated interval mentioned in the title. It commences at the moment of Mr. Necker's departure, and terminates with the king's visit to the national assembly. With a tinge of the enthusiasm of liberty, the author is calm and steady in his narrative, without apparently suffering his feelings, in the least degree, to give a colouring to his facts. Let us extract a few of these.

Mr. Necker departed at ten at night on the Saturday; and on the Sunday the whole city was in disorder. The prince of Lambesc passed furiously, at the head of his troop, over the draw-bridge of the Thuilleries: 'every thing was in disorder, a single man, pretty old, was struck by the prince with his sword.' — 'The soldiers were collected in the square of Louis XV. they were pelted with stones, and fired on the populace without hurting any one.' Arms, troops, and ammunition appeared to pour in on every side; and it was necessary to be decisive. The Hotel des Invalides was forced; and the Bastille stormed. They soon entered into the first court, apparently without opposition; and an embassy was sent to the governor to induce him to surrender. The curate of St. Paul's was one of the ambassadors, and he seems, from a desire of peace alone, to have softened the refusal. In consequence of this, the governor *did* offer to surrender, and then he treacherously shut the gates on the messengers. 'A single man, however, was only killed at that time. The cannon of the Bastille had no effect on those who were so near; and the cannon of the besiegers no effect on the walls of the fortress. While the besiegers concealed their approach behind some smoking straw, they levelled at the gate behind the second draw-bridge, and were, in that way, successful. Three men were only killed, and from the firing of the cannon of the fortress, levelled too high to hurt the besiegers, one was killed in the streets, and several wounded; though slightly. About eight or ten people only were killed in the whole; and the governor was bayoneted on the spot. The soldier, of whom we have heard so much, undoubtedly ascended the tower, and hung out a branch in token of victory; but he was one of those who had been admitted over the draw-bridge.' Such are the outlines of a description published at Paris, and yet uncontroverted. Those who read the pamphlets which follow in our list will sometimes hardly recognize that they treat of the same event.

Historical

Historical Remarks on the Castle of the Bastille: with curious and entertaining Anecdotes of that Fortress, &c. &c. From the French. 8vo. 2s. Gardner.

This appears to be the work published in 1774: it has no relation to the late events; but bears strong marks of accuracy and authenticity.

A true and minute Account of the Destruction of the Bastille; by Jean Jacques Calet. Translated from the French, by an English Gentleman. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stalker.

If our author was really on the spot, his account differs from that of many in the same situation; and very essentially so from the French account which we have reviewed. We mean not to injure the sale of a work designed for the benefit of an unfortunate man, and shall be ready to retract our suspicion on proper authority; but we ought, for the sake of the public, whose servants we are, to point out what we think to be erroneous information.

Tyranny Annihilated: or, the Triumph of Freedom over Despotism. Containing a particular Account of the Rise, Progress, and various Incidents which produced the late grand and memorable Revolution in the Government of France. 8vo. 1s. Adlard.

Notwithstanding all the publisher's art in a pompous title-page and a miserably executed plate, we ought to acknowledge that this appears to be a faithful compilation—from the newspapers.

*A Detail of the wonderful Revolution at Paris. By M. D** C**. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.*

This account appears on the whole candid and dispassionate, and the author's address to his countrymen, on their sanguinary conduct, is just and animated. Their first revolution was conducted with infinite judgment and consummate address. The disasters of a moment no one could be blamed for; but what shall we say of the future conduct of the French? the mob is a furious wild beast; when its chain is loosened, its destructive ravages are excessive, and perhaps it is seldom easy in a first innovation, to draw the line between liberty and licentiousness.

A Fifteen Day's Tour to Paris; containing several interesting Circumstances, particularly the Origin and Progress of the present Revolution. By an English Gentleman of Veracity, just returned. 8vo. 2s. Kearsley.

This quinzaine Anglois seems to be the crumbe recodet of some former work, with the necessary addition to make it a temporary publication. In his hurrying Tour the gentleman misrepresents some of the late events, particularly the slaughter in taking the Bastille, and the facility with which it was destroyed. Not one sixth of this little work relates to the more recent transactions. The account of the Bastille we have seen before: it appears to be a faithful description, and its horrors are greatly

softened when compared with the colouring of M. Linguet and other authors.

D I V I N I T Y.

National Gratitude a National Duty, and National Allegiance a National Blessing. In two Sermons, the first preached in the Royal Chapel of Plymouth, on Sunday the 8th of March, 1789, also in the Church of St. Andrew, on Sunday the 15th of March, on Account of our gracious Sovereign's Restoration to Health. The second preached on April 23, 1789, being the Day of Public Thanksgiving for the same, in the said Chapel, by the Rev. John Malham. 4to. 1s. Crowder.

Mr. Malham's sermons are serious, loyal, and practical: as he seems not to arrogate the praises due to elegant and finished compositions, we can cheerfully praise the more essential merits which we have pointed out.

The Favour and Protection of God an infinite Source of national Gratitude and Joy. A Sermon, preached in the Chapel of Gosport, on Thursday, the 23d of April, 1789, being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving on his Majesty's Recovery. By Richard Bingham, B. A. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

This Sermon is animated and elegant. Our author's historical view of the state of the nation previous to the illness of his majesty, the dangers which might have been dreaded from its continuance, and the happiness derived from our deliverance, are detailed with much spirit and elegance. Mr. Bingham is not a little profuse in his encomiums on Mr. Pitt; and we see, in more than one instance, appearances of strong predilection, which make us hesitate a little in deciding on his impartiality.

A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of ———, in the County of Cornwall, on Thursday the 23d Day of April, 1789, the Day of Thanksgiving to Almighty God, for the Recovery of his most sacred Majesty King George III. from his late dangerous Indisposition. 8vo. 1s. Printed for the Author.

Our author's Sermon is warm, loyal, and practical. His free animadversions on the conduct of opposition during the king's illness, seem to be the reasons for concealing his name; he has no reason however to be ashamed of his work, since, in many views, it possesses much merit.

The Christian Duty of Thanksgiving. A Sermon, preached at Hanworth, in the County of Middlesex, on Thursday, April 23, 1789, being the Day appointed for a solemn Thanksgiving to Almighty God for his Majesty's happy Recovery. By Thomas Lancaster. 4to. 1s. Beetham.

Mr. Lancaster explains and enforces the duty of thanksgiving with great clearness and spirit. His encomiums on our sovereign are warm; and his gratitude for the late happy event is proportionally animated.

A Sermon

A Sermon preached in the Cathedral Church of St. Peter, York, before the Hon. Sir John Wilson, Knt. one of his Majesty's Justices of the Court of Common Pleas, on Sunday, July 26, 1789. By the Rev. Matthew Rainie, A. M. 4to. 1s. Robinsons.

This is an admirable discourse from Acts xviii. 14, 15. 'And when Paul was now about to open his mouth, Gallio said unto the Jews, "If it were a matter of wrong or wicked lewdness, O ye Jews! reason would that I should bear with you: but if it be a question of words and names, and of your law, look ye to it; for I will be no judge of such matters." Mr. Raine considers the expediency of restraining freedom of opinion in religious subjects, by penal statutes, with great perspicuity and accuracy: in his determination and conclusions, his candour and moderation are as conspicuous as the ability displayed in the discussion.

P O E T R Y.

The Winter Assembly; or, Provincial Ball. A Poem. Inscribed to the Ladies of the West. 4to. 1s. Dilly.

We are greatly mistaken if we do not know this author by *his style*. The confusion and obscurity in which almost every passage is involved, the allusions to people and circumstances unknown, a kind of rainbow chace after wit and satire that flies from the pursuit and mocks the grasp, all concur to point him out as no other than the writer of 'The Farrago', a Pick-penny.' The scene appears from the following lines to be laid in Exeter:

'O nymph of Devon! and O Western belle!

Thy feats in minuets the squire can tell.

Unknowing of *pas grave*, he tastes his legs,

And cuts at corners as he treads on eggs.

Whether the 'feats' of this double lady, who belongs both to Devonshire and the West of England, and is both a nymph and a belle, are mentioned by way of encomium or satire, we cannot perfectly ascertain. The poor squire is evidently held out as the object of ridicule, and is most unmercifully lashed. It may be said, that had he been introduced as 'tasting' his 'eggs' and using his 'legs' in 'treading and cutting capers,' the passage would be more natural. This we allow, but it certainly would not have been half so severe as at present. We are told, and the observation is more true than novel, that we have dancers who 'never saw the coast of France.' In that class we apprehend the following are concluded:

'Some without measure squeeze all hands they meet,

And beat the ground to atoms with their feet.

Some with unceasing toil exhaust the dance,

Nor curb'd by fiddles in andantes prance.'

At first reading, we conjectured that these honest hand-squeezers and ground-thumpers were introduced as the representatives of the untravelled squires of Devonshire; for just after, and seemingly in opposition to them, the more finical race of metropolitan dancers are thus exhibited.

‘ There are who, polish’d with a finer hand,
Point the short toe and swim along the land,
With strength enough the bottom to attain,
Not so robust to dance it up again.
This weaker moiety tribe, like daisies pied,
From London come, to provinces denied.’

On mature reflection, however, we find that could not be the case. ‘ A treader on eggs,’ and ‘ a beater of the ground to atoms,’ cannot naturally be understood as characterising qualities of the same species of beings. The author possibly meant to puzzle the critics, and if so, he has most admirably succeeded in this and many other passages. We hope, if he has any regard for his readers, that he will write explanatory notes to his future poetical publications.

Galic Liberty, a Poem. Occasioned by the Revolution in France.
4to. 1s. Dilly.

Britannia is called upon by Freedom, at the opening of this Poem, to ‘ seize the votive lyre,’ and raise the congratulating song on her neighbour’s emancipation from civil tyranny; and towards the conclusion they are advised to take the same opportunity of rescuing themselves from religious bondage. The Revolution in France is doubtless, as the author says, one of the most extraordinary and important events that has happened in the present century. We are, however, extremely sceptical as to its being so completely effected as he seems to imagine. We find no fault with him on that account. He writes from his feelings, and those feelings are amiable. But we cannot speak very highly of his poetical abilities.

Reflections on Peace and the Seasons. In which is introduced the Character of a Patriot King. A Poem. By William Pountney.
4to. 2s. 6d. Richardson.

The author may be an exceeding good divine, but the Muses certainly did not ‘ smile propitious at his birth;’ and we would advise him to have nothing more to do with them. Let the following passage, which occurs in page second, serve as a specimen of his philosophical acumen:

‘ The richest dress diseases cannot mend,
His dress so plain still answers nature’s end.
Diseases nat’ral cannot rise from chance,
Nature abus’d, in number more advance.’

This is spoken of a shepherd ‘ possess’d of every natural joy;’ but that joy is somewhat diminished by the unlucky circumstances mentioned in the next page,

‘ Yet

' Yet sure he has, this nat'ral to the best;
 Afrail lest reynard shou'd the stock molest,
 Lest he shou'd hear the timid bleating lambs,
 Behind they bleat so loud, not seen their dams:
 Frequent at morn he finds their blood is spilt,
 This by the fox in his nocturnal guilt.
 Met by the shepherd, across his neck a hen,
 Waddling along to reach his lethal den,
 Stopt up by school-boys set to ruin the fox.
 In vain, *the rogue has keys for diff'rent locks.*'

Of all the numerous charges brought against this notorious felon; home to the present times, from the days of Sampson or Alop, real or imaginary, we consider that we have marked in *Italics* as most peculiar and remarkable. The observation is truly original, and contains a new discovery in natural history. We feel no inclination to read or transcribe any farther.

N O V E L S.

Calista, a Novel, by Mrs. Johnson, Author of Retribution, Gamblers, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Lane.

The characters displayed in this novel are supported with spirit and consistency: we may particularly mention those of the Elder Brother, Mrs. Sylvester, and Mr. Powell, while the peculiarities of Mrs. Macduff, and some others, render the work very entertaining. In many parts there is much novelty, and the whole is very interesting, often pathetic, and generally amusing. The conduct of the story does not, however, show any great skill: the event is soon obvious; and though the catastrophe is varied beyond what may be at first expected, yet it is in effect foreseen. The wandering of Calista is perhaps a little too much like that of Cecilia; but this defect is compensated for by the artful arrangement of circumstances, by which she is prevented from returning to her husband, and by which she is rendered in appearance guilty. We have not in our late career, met with many better works, and few which possess so much merit, or which we can with less exception recommend.

The Mental Triumph, a Sentimental Novel, by a Lady, inscribed, by Permission, to the Plainest of her Sex. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Walter.

We recollect a novel, we believe by the late Dr. Hill, where the hero, notwithstanding his personal deformity, 'works his way,' as the heroes of the novellist generally do, to an advantageous marriage. Isabella, by her mental charms, but the author has chosen to give her the advantage of an elegant person, does the same, though it was necessary to prove her to be the daughter of an earl, to gain the father's consent. This part of the novel is, however, the best; for the event is well concealed,

cealed, and dexterously unfolded at the moment when it was necessary. On the whole, in many respects, these volumes rise above the ground; but they do not soar to any height, or preserve a continued flight.

The Predestined Wife; or, the Force of Prejudice, a Novel, in a Series of Letters, by the Author of Edward and Sophia, Powis Castle, and Eliza Cleland. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Kerby.

We hoped, from the former works of our author, that we might have found some merit in the *Predestined Wife*; but the story is trite, trifling, and in the highest degree improbable.

Emma Dorville. By a Lady. 12mo. 3s. Hookham.

This is a pleasing interesting little story, but does not rise in the scale. It is made up of adventures gleaned from former works, and in no instance does our fair author soar above the footsteps of her predecessors.

Lord Walford, a Novel, by L. L. Esq. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Hookham.

The 'Author' of *Lord Walford* delights 'in hair breadth escapes,' for the different personages are often near death, though they never die. This, we suppose, is intended to elevate and surprise. In other respects the work is a motley mixture, composed of shreds and patches, without much regard to consistency or probability:

— Nec pes nec caput uni
Reddatur formæ —

It is not, however, unentertaining, or occasionally uninteresting: it will supply the 'something new' the incessant call of idle young ladies, antiquated dowagers, or neglected virgins.

The Young Lady of Fortune; or, HER Lover gained by Stratagem, a Novel, by a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Stalker.

We have seen nothing so trifling and insignificant; nor can we say in what respect this novel is most contemptible; in its insignificance, improbability, neglect of grammar, which even glares in the title, or the extravagant expansion by which it is extended to two volumes, loosely printed, containing together but two hundred pages.

The History of Sandford and Merton, a Work intended for the Use of Children. Vol. III. 12mo. 3s. Stockdale.

In our LVIIth and LXIst volumes, we gave an account of the first and second volumes of this work. In the second we thought the author's spirit seemed to fail; but the conclusion deserves our commendation. It is conducted with spirit, with judgment, and propriety. The tales, interspersed, are interesting and instructive. The scene is judiciously varied, and
much

much information respecting the manners of different nations, and the customs of different countries, occur in this volume.

P O L I T I C A L.

A Third Letter from Major Scott to Mr. Fox, on the Story of Deby Sing; Two Letters relative to the Expences attending the Trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. and a Letter to Mr. Burke. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

In these Letters, one of which has already appeared in several of the public prints, major Scott makes a variety of observations on the conduct of the committee for managing the trial of Mr. Hastings. On this subject, however, he is rather declamatory than strictly argumentative; but he continues to vindicate the character of the governor-general with great zeal, and to intermix his narrative with many sarcastic reflections against that gentleman's accusers.

Alfred's Apology. Second Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Printed for the Author.

Of the pamphlet entitled Alfred we gave an account in our Review for March last. In the present Apology Dr. Withers appeals to the public, against what he considers as an injurious treatment of his work, in different literary Journals. It is sufficient for us to observe that, with respect to the authors of the Critical Review, they are censured, not for what they said, but what they *did not say*, of his production. This is such a species of complaint as certainly exempts us from the necessity of making likewise an apology to the public. The truth is, Dr. Withers appears to be so much governed by an overweening vanity, that he can be satisfied with nothing less than the most explicit acquiescence in his sentiments and observations, though founded, as we sometimes suspect, in personal prejudice, and urged, almost always, with a vehemence which transgresses the bounds of common decency. The extreme petulance which he discovers in respect of some eminent characters, is particularly censurable.

Alfred's Apology, Second Part. 8vo. 4s. Printed for the Author.

The half of this pamphlet is occupied with a Letter to the Prince of Wales; after which we meet with Observations on Mr. Pitt, Mr. Horne Tooke, the Party, and the Trial of the Author concerning the Libel against Mrs. Fitzherbert. The whole is written in the ardent manner of Dr. Withers, whose polemical spirit appears to have received no abatement from the terrors of the impending prosecution.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S,

First Report of the Philanthropic Society. Instituted in London, Sept. 1788, for the Prevention of Crimes. 8vo. 1s. Becket.

This well written, but hastily printed Report, explains the views and designs of a Society which truly deserves the name of

of Philanthropic. The author explains, with great perspicuity and accuracy, the disadvantages which arise from a legal provision for the poor, since it checks that exertion of industry, which might be employed in providing a fund as a support for age or in the hour of disease, and lessens the stock of national labour, which must of course impede national prosperity. We fear, however, the remedy will not be wholly effectual. The society begins very properly by taking care of the children of the lowest penury and the most squalid misery: these they inure to habits of industry, and lead them, by judicious rules, in the paths of integrity and virtue. So far their conduct deserves the most cordial commendation, and the most eager imitation: we fear only, that the same principle which has influenced others, will in turn also influence them; and if they can procure the week's subsistence in three days, they will work no more, since the parish must supply them in sickness and decrepitude. But though they may not succeed in every part, their views and designs are so proper and so well conducted, that they deserve every encouragement which affluence can afford.

A Sea-Manual, recommended to the young Officers of the Royal Navy, as a Companion to the Signal Book. By Sir Alexander Schomburgk. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Robinsfons.

This little tract is an eminently useful one, for it comprises much information of the best kind in a small compass, and clear intelligible language. We cannot easily give any particular account of it, as it would require diagrams; but we can safely recommend it as a very necessary companion to the naval officer. We have usually trusted to our intrepidity and character; but, while our neighbours are extending their scientific improvements in this line, we ought not to be deficient in it.

A Lecture on the Atmosphere of London; as read before a Public Society, June. 14th, 1788. With Plates illustrative of the Phenomena, and a Preface. By B. Taylor. 4to. 2s. Dilly.

It would be an unpleasant task to point out the numerous mistakes in philosophy and meteorology, which the lecturer has committed. We expected nothing better when we found him laughing at his honest landlord, who told him that the smell of the water-closet prevented infection. There are, however, very few points where the author expatiates beyond very common and trite remarks.

An Essay to direct and extend the Inquiries of Patriotic Travellers; with further Observations on the Means of preserving the Life, Health, and Property of the experienced in their Journeys by Land and Sea. By Count Leopold Brechtold. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Robinsfons.

This Essay is exceedingly useful, and calculated not only to assist the traveller, by very judicious advice, but to open his eyes, if we may be allowed the expression; to point out various objects

objects of enquiry, which are either curious or useful. The second volume contains a catalogue of works which have been published relating to different countries: it appears to be full and complete.

A Treatise on the Coal-Trade, by Charles Beaumont. 4to. 5s. Robinsons.

Mr. Beaumont appears to be not only perfectly well acquainted with the coal-trade, but with the various important uses to which this valuable commodity is subservient. From his extensive knowledge of the subject, he is enabled to suggest even practical rules, the observance of which will prove highly advantageous in the working of coal-mines. But his observations are not confined within the limits of the technical department; he likewise suggests an improvement of the revenue upon this great article of consumption; and, what must render his enquiries particularly interesting to the inhabitants of the capital, he proposes that the price of the best coals imported into London should be fixed at seven and thirty shillings the chaldron the whole year round; this being such a price as would, he thinks, at the same time that it left the consumers at a certainty with regard to their expence, afford a reasonable profit to all concerned in the coal-trade. We hope, therefore, that Mr. Beaumont's observations will meet with due attention, when the subject, of which he treats in so satisfactory a manner, shall come under the consideration of government.

An Answer to the Letter of Theophilus Swift, Esq. on the Subject of the Royal Duel. 8vo. 6d. Stalker.

The author of this Letter affects not elegance of style, nor discovers that apparently studied train of reflection which may be observed in the production of Mr. Swift; but, in the force of plain argument, we cannot hesitate to ascribe to him an evident superiority; with the additional claim to approbation, that he seems equally candid and ingenuous.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

M. Vanden Bosch seems entirely to mistake the design of our Journal, which differs very essentially from those published on the continent. It is limited to the reviewing works that have appeared in print; and the little of it which we can spare for our Correspondence, must be confined to the questions arising on the subjects we have before discussed. His former description of the merits of a specific for the small pox, in Latin, we never received; and if it had come to our hands, we must have declined inserting it. The present advertisement for the sale of this specific must, if at all admitted, be confined to our blue cover; but we think the advantages arising from it, in this country, would not be adequate to the expence necessarily incurred by this method. The employment of secret compositions is, in England, attended with a little disgrace.

WE

WE have received Mr. W. G's very obliging letter, in which he points out the 20th verse of the second chapter of St. John, as confirming Mr. Burgess's opinion of Herod's rebuilding the temple, rather than repairing it. *Τοσούτωντα καὶ ἑξ ἔτεσιν ἀνοδομένη ἡ ναὶς ἦτορ.* It is rendered forty and six years was this temple in building, evidently, Mr. G. thinks, 'from the noun being put in the dative instead of the accusative case, which is the usual construction.' He would translate it, 'Forty and six years *has this temple been built,*' which, he observes, is exactly the distance of time intervening between the transaction of Herod and this conversation. The same remark occurs, we believe, in Heylin, Doddridge, and some other divines, who find a little difficulty in reconciling the chronology. We shall not follow this discussion, since the words were spoken by the Jews, who never allowed but of two temples, Solomon's and Zerubbabel's. They allow of no more at this time. Besides, the force of the sentence contradicts the supposition. If thou destroy this temple, says our Saviour, I will raise it up again in three days—In three days! replied the Jews—who thought only of the building before them—why this temple required forty and six years in building: how canst thou raise it up again in so short a period? Its having been built forty-six years, or forty-six times as many, was of very little importance to the argument. In Matth. xxvi. 61. and xxvii. 40. in Mark xiv. 58. and xv. 29, where we find confirmations of this conversation, the ridicule and anger of the Jews are evidently levelled at our Saviour, on account of his undervaluing the time and labour employed in this sumptuous edifice.

We must acknowledge also the receipt of a very judicious letter on this subject from X. Y. who is so obliging as to tell us he very fully agrees with us in opinion, and adds some arguments in confirmation of it, which we would readily have transcribed, if we were not afraid of anticipating his intended publication. He accuses us, however, of not having given a fair view of the whole of the controversy, as we have omitted the bishop of Exeter's sermon on this prophecy of Haggai. We are sorry to perceive that single sermons very often elcape, either because they are local publications, or not regularly advertised. We have, however, ordered our collector to look for it, and we hope to be able to attend to it very soon.

WE have received Minutius's very humorous verses, and his obliging letter: we are well pleased to find that our opinions do not greatly differ, and that our conduct has met with his applause. Minutius considers Peter's satire as properly directed against those culprits whom the law cannot reach. He carries it indeed one step farther, and aims his shafts at foibles which can never be the objects of a legislature; but, when these foibles are harmless to the community we wish him to spare his 'salcion.'



THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For NOVEMBER, 1789.

*An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation. By
Jeremy Bentham, Esq. 4to. 19s. in Boards. Payne and Son.*

THIS work was printed in the year 1780; and in this interval Mr. Bentham has discovered that the plan and the execution were in some respects imperfect. These Principles were designed as an introduction to a plan of a penal code, in terminis; and they would not now have been published in their imperfect state, but that they were essentially necessary to some other treatises, for our author is prolific, and many different works, either in manuscript, or already printed, are alluded to. The Defence of Usury, which we formerly examined, owed its origin to our author's Principles not admitting of this crime, so that he was led to enquire whether it was a crime or no: the pursuit of truth is endless. We cannot point out the defects of this work, as a system, better than in the author's own words.

‘An introduction to a work which takes for its subject the totality of any science, ought to contain all such matters, and such matters only, as belong in common to every particular branch of that science, or at least to more branches of it than one. Compared with its present title, the present work fails in both ways of being conformable to that rule.

‘As an introduction to the principles of morals, in addition to the analysis it contains of the extensive ideas signified by the terms pleasure, pain, motive, and disposition, it ought to have given a similar analysis of the not less extensive, though much less determinate, ideas annexed to the terms emotion, passion, appetite, virtue, vice, and some others, including the names of the particular virtues and vices. But as the true, and, if he conceives right, the only true ground-work for the development of the latter set of terms, has been laid by the explanation of the former, the completion of such a dictionary, so to style it, would, in comparison of the commencement, be little more than a mechanical operation.

‘Again, as an introduction to the principles of legislation in general, it ought rather to have included matters belonging exclusively to the civil branch, than matters more particu-

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larly applicable to the penal: the latter being but a means of compassing the ends proposed by the former. In preference, therefore, or at least in priority to the several chapters which will be found relative to punishment, it ought to have exhibited a set of propositions which have since presented themselves to him as affording a standard for the operations performed by government, in the creation and distribution of proprietary and other civil rights. He means certain axioms of what may be termed mental pathology, expressive of the connection betwixt the feelings of the parties concerned, and the several classes of incidents, which either call for, or are produced by, operations of the nature above mentioned.

‘The consideration of the division of offences, and every thing else that belongs to offences, ought, besides, to have preceded the consideration of punishment: for the idea of punishment presupposes the idea of offence: punishment, as such, not being inflicted but in consideration of offence.

‘Lastly, the analytical discussions relative to the classification of offences, would, according to his present views, be transferred to a separate treatise, in which the system of legislation is considered solely in respect of its form: in other words, in respect to its method and terminology.’

Mankind, Mr. Bentham tells us, are governed by pleasure or pain; and on these the very extensive principle of utility is founded. This principle is described, and its advantages above those adverse to it, are pointed out: the adverse principles are asceticism, which, by a little perversion, is made to signify the mistaken notion which has been often entertained, that by voluntary punishment or mortification, we may obtain the favour of the deity, or fame; and secondly, sympathy or antipathy, in other words, the moral sense, rule of right, &c. The first, our author thinks, is only the principle of utility misapplied, and the second a negation of principle rather than any thing positive.

Pleasures or pains, therefore, the origin of this universal principle of utility, are next examined, and their sources, or, in our author’s phraseology, which is often a little affected, their ‘sanctions’ are explained. The great use of this chapter is to discriminate the different kinds of pains and pleasures, and to point out ‘the efficacy of certain moral forces.’ The next chapter is on the means of measuring the value of a ‘lot of pleasure or pain,’ for as these are the instruments with which a legislator works, it is necessary to examine their force. There is, however, some danger, that different individuals will not estimate by the same standard. The various kinds of pleasure and pain are next enumerated very particularly. Our author pretends that his catalogue is complete; and that it must be so, from the analytical process by which it was
formed,

formed, but the process is reserved for a future work. He then proceeds to those circumstances which influence the operation of these different powers, inasmuch as they influence the sensibility.

After these preliminaries Mr. Bentham comes a little nearer to the subject, in his chapter on human actions. The demand for punishment depends, he says, in part, on the tendency of the act, which is determined by its most important consequences; and in part by the intention, including the consciousness; by the motives and disposition. The first part of the examination relates to the act and its circumstances. An act is either positive or negative, though these are often convertible, at least in their terms; external or internal; transitive or intransitive, a distinction not well discriminated, as the author means by transitive the communication of motion; transient and continued, distinguished from repeated; divisible and indivisible. Circumstances are distinguished with equal minuteness, which may probably be useful in examining the force of what is alledged in extenuation, or of what may aggravate a crime. It is not easy to say that much of this distinction is useless, because we do not yet see the application; but we are certain that our author's fondness for systematical division has sometimes carried him into a disgusting minuteness; and his logical enquiries, for his analysis seems to depend on logical disquisition, have, we suspect, led him occasionally to refinements not really useful. The intention may regard the act, or its consequences: but perhaps it may be more agreeable to select our author's example of different kinds of intention, than to follow the abstract distinctions.

‘ One example will make all this clear. William II. king of England, being out a stag-hunting, received from sir Walter Tyrrel a wound, of which he died. Let us take this case, and diversify it with a variety of suppositions, correspondent to the distinctions just laid down.

‘ 1. First then, Tyrrel did not so much as entertain a thought of the king's death; or, if he did, looked upon it as an event of which there was no danger. In either of these cases the incident of his killing the king was altogether unintentional.

‘ 2. He saw a stag running that way, and he saw the king riding that way at the same time: what he aimed at was to kill the stag: he did not wish to kill the king: at the same time he saw, that if he shot, it was as likely he should kill the king as the stag: yet for all that he shot, and killed the king accordingly. In this case the incident of killing the king was intentional, but obliquely so.

A 2 2

‘ 3. He

' 3. He killed the king on account of the hatred he bore him, and for no other reason than the pleasure of destroying him. In this case the incident of the king's death was not only directly, but ultimately intentional.

' 4. He killed the king, intending fully so to do; not for any hatred he bore him, but for the sake of plundering him when dead. In this case the incident of the king's death was directly intentional, but not ultimately: it was mediately intentional.

' 5. He intended neither more nor less than to kill the king. He had no other aim nor wish. In this case it was exclusively as well as directly intentional: exclusively, to wit, with regard to every other material incident.

' 6. Sir Walter shot the king in the right leg, as he was plucking a thorn out of it with his left hand. His intention was, by shooting the arrow into his leg through his hand, to cripple him in both those limbs at the same time. In this case the incident of the king's being shot in the leg was intentional: and that conjunctively with another which did not happen; viz. his being shot in the hand.

' 7. The intention of Tyrrel was to shoot the king either in the hand or in the leg, but not in both; and rather in the hand than in the leg. In this case the intention of shooting in the leg was disjunctively concurrent, with regard to the other incident, and that with preference.

' 8. His intention was to shoot the king either in the leg or the hand, whichever might happen; but not in both. In this case the intention was inexclusive, but disjunctively so: yet that, however, without preference.

' 9. His intention was to shoot the king either in the leg or the hand, or in both, as it might happen. In this case the intention was indiscriminately concurrent, with respect to the two incidents.'

Mr. Bentham next considers how far consciousness or unadvisedness may influence the complexion of crimes. He then examines motives, which are all traced up to the two great principles, pleasure and pain; and a catalogue of motives is added, corresponding to that of pleasures and pains. The order of pre-eminence among motives, is a curious section of this chapter. Good will, as it coincides most closely with the dictates of utility, is placed at the head; the love of reputation and the desire of amity succeed. He feels a difficulty of arranging religious motives, because religion is so various and opposite in its effects, in consequence of the variety of its tenets; but at the bottom of the list are placed the self-regarding, dissocial motives and displeasure. The disposition is the last circumstance which influences the tendency of any action; and the disposition is evinced from the apparent tendency of the

the act, as well as from the nature of the motive. Mr. Bentham examines at great length the disposition, as it is shown by the tendency of the act; and then proceeds to a curious problem—to measure the depravity of a man's disposition. It is constituted, he says, by the *sum* of his intentions, which owe their birth to motives: these are seducing or corrupting motives, and tutelary or preserving ones. After examining each kind in all its circumstances, he concludes, that the strength of the temptation in any case, after deducting the force of the social motives, is as the sum of the forces of the seducing, to the sum of the forces of the occasional tutelary motives. This would not have appeared a discovery if he had not omitted the second term—to the power of resistance; for he then would only have said, that the actions were good or bad, in proportion to the force or power of the motives; a position often repeated, and never disputed. Indications which respect the depravity of an offender's disposition, and rules for measuring that depravity, follow.

The consequences of a mischievous act, form, as our author observes, the last link in the chain of causes and effects. The mischief of an act is, he remarks, the aggregate of its mischievous consequences, which was already implied in the abstract term of mischief; but it is then divided into primary or secondary consequences; and among the secondary is arranged, with great propriety, the probability of affording a foundation for future outrages, not only by showing the practicability of the attempt, but by weakening the restraining motives. It is, however, observed, that in some instances, the secondary consequences may be beneficial, when the primary ones are injurious; as, for instance, where the example made of the offender is more extensively useful than his crime was hurtful. The mischief of an act may appear indeed in many different shapes, and is not taken away by the nature of the motive; on the contrary, the secondary mischief of the act may be aggravated by the motive, so far, at least, as respects the future behaviour of the person. A mischievous act, our author thinks, is more so when it proceeds from a self-regarding than when from a dissocial motive. We shall select what Mr. Bentham observes respecting religion, as a motive.

‘If a man happen to take it into his head to assassinate with his own hands, or with the sword of justice, those whom he calls heretics; that is, people who think, or perhaps only speak differently upon a subject which neither party understands, he will be as much inclined to do this at one time as at another. Fanaticism never sleeps; it is never glutted; it is never stopped by philanthropy; for it makes a merit of trampling on philan-

thropy : it is never stopped by conscience ; for it has pressed conscience into its service. Avarice, lust, and vengeance, have piety, benevolence, honour ; fanaticism has nothing to oppose it.

Punishment, according to Mr. Bentham, is in itself an evil, but it is enforced to prevent greater evils. It ought not, therefore, to be inflicted, where there is no mischief to prevent, that is, where the act, on the whole, is not mischievous, where it must be inefficacious, unprofitable, or too expensive ; and where it is needless, or the subsequent mischief may be better and more easily obviated. Each of these cases is satisfactorily illustrated and explained. When neither of these cases occur, there are four objects of punishment, 1st, to prevent offences ; 2dly, to prevent the most mischievous ones ; 3dly, to prevent unnecessary and wanton mischief ; and, 4thly, to prevent it at the easiest rate, or the least expence. Various rules are laid down by which these different objects may be best attained. ‘ The properties to be given to a lot of punishment ’ are next ascertained. Punishment ought to be variable, in proportion to the mischief of the offence ; equable ; commensurable to other punishments, that is, where the lowest degree of the more severe is still greater than the highest degree of that class which immediately follows : characteristical, or suitable to the offence, exemplary, frugal, subservient to reformation, disabling the offender to repeat the crime, subservient to compensation, not unpopular and remissible. Many of these properties of punishment are, in some measure, incompatible with each other, and some are probably inadmissible ; but this chapter ought, perhaps, to be considered as a theoretical outline only.

Mr. Bentham next proceeds to offences ; and these he determines to be only acts detrimental to the community, that is, to one or more of its members, either assignable or unassignable. This leads to a division of offences into private, semipublic, self-regarding, public, and complicated ; which are offences by falsehood, and offences against trust. These classes are again subdivided very minutely, and it will not be difficult to ascertain those subordinate divisions. We shall, however, transcribe our author’s manner of connecting offences against religion with the public offences.

‘ Whether or no a man has done the act which renders him an object meet for punishment or reward, the eyes of those, whosoever they be, to whom the management of these engines is entrusted, cannot always see, nor where it is punishment that is to be administered, can their hands be always sure to reach him,

him. To supply these deficiencies in point of power, it is thought necessary, or at least useful (without which the truth of the doctrine would be nothing to the purpose) to inculcate into the minds of the people the belief of the existence of a power applicable to the same purposes, and not liable to the same deficiencies: the power of a supreme invisible Being, to whom a disposition of contributing to the same ends to which the several institutions already mentioned are calculated to contribute, must for this purpose be ascribed. It is of course expected that this power will, at one time or other, be employed in the promoting of those ends: and to keep up and strengthen this expectation among men, is spoken of as being the employment of a kind of allegorical personage, feigned as before, for convenience of discourse, and styled *Religion*. To diminish then, or misapply the influence of religion, is *pro tanto* to diminish or misapply what power the state has of combating with effect, any of the before-enumerated kinds of offences; that is, all kinds of offences whatsoever. Acts that appear to have this tendency may be styled *offences against religion*. Of these then may be composed the tenth division of the class of offences against the state*.

It is with great regret that we cannot pursue our author in his subdivision into orders, and even into genera, which is carried no farther than the first class. This part of his work is extremely curious and often important; but the parts are so intimately connected, that a minuter analysis would be totally inconsistent with our limits. That part which relates to insolvency is new and ingenious: we dare not say that it is strictly correct.

* It may be observed, that upon this occasion I consider religion in no other light, than in respect of the influence it may have on the happiness of the present life. As to the effects it may have in assuring us of, and preparing us for, a better life to come; this is a matter which comes not within the cognizance of the legislator.—See tit. (Offences against religion).

I say, offences against religion, the fictitious entity: not offences against God, the real being. For what sort of pain should the act of a feeble mortal occasion to a being unsusceptible of pain? How should an offence affect him? Should it be an offence against his person, his property, his reputation, or his condition?

It has commonly been the way to put offences against religion foremost. The idea of precedence is naturally enough connected with that of reverence. *Εὐ Διὸς ἀρχαῖα ποθεῖν*.—But for expressing reverence, there are other methods enough that are less equivocal: and in point of method and perspicuity, it is evident, that with regard to offences against religion, neither the nature of the mischief which it is their tendency to produce, nor the reason there may be for punishing them, can be understood, but from the consideration of the several mischiefs which result from the several other sorts of offences. In a political view, it is only because these others are mischievous, that offences against religion are so too.

The last chapter of this volume is on the limits between private ethics and the art of legislation ; for legislation comprehends the civil and the penal laws, while offences and punishments comprehend only the last branch. These two branches cannot be easily distinguished ; and we may also, after Mr. Bentham, remark, that the limits between legislation and private ethics, are not easily ascertained. Our author first begins with ethics, and examines the distinction between private ethics and legislation, in the cases which he formerly pointed out as unmeet for punishment. Where punishment would be unprofitable, ethics may, perhaps, be of service. On the whole, private ethics teach how each man may dispose of himself, to pursue the course most conducive to his own happiness, by means of such motives as offer of themselves. Legislation, on the contrary, teaches how man, in society, should pursue that course which is conducive to the good of the whole, by motives calculated for that purpose by the legislature. The next distinction is between penal and civil jurisprudence. The general title may be divided into expository, that branch which explains what the law is ; and censorial, or what it ought to be. Laws are indeed subdivided according to their extent, the political quality of those they are intended to regulate, the time of their being in force, the manner in which they are expressed, and the concern they have with punishment. It is the last distinction which is the author's object ; but he only states the question : he means to examine it in a future work. Some slight hints of what may be expected in this new work are subjoined ; but we shall prefer waiting for a more full discussion.

Such nearly is the very elaborate work of our author, which, as a system, is in some degree new : it is vast, comprehensive, and able. When we have, however, given it this character, we must remark, that the outline is filled up very unequally. Long and intricate discussions end in trifling conclusions ; affected refinement sometimes stands in the place of useful distinctions, and the parade of system is so highly laboured as frequently to disgust, with that formal regularity, which, perhaps, under better management, would be convenient and useful. Yet, with our author's improvements, a little attention to the more elegant ornaments, and some care in rendering the systematic regularity less glaring, he might render his work both pleasing and useful.

Medical

Medical Inquiries and Observations. To which is added an Appendix, containing Observations on the Duties of a Physician, and the Methods of improving Medicine. By Benjamin Rush, M. D. The Second Edition. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Dilly.

DR. Rush has collected into one volume the different essays which were scattered in various collections, some that appear to have been printed separately, and others which seem now to be published for the first time. The second edition in the title page refers, we believe, only to the reprinting in England. We shall notice, in their order, the different tracts which have not yet occurred in our former warfare.

The first is an Enquiry into the Natural History of Medicine among the Indians of North America, and a comparative View of the Diseases and Remedies with those of civilized Nations. This essay was read in 1774 to the American Philosophical Society. It has no place in the first or second volume of their Transactions, and indeed it was read subsequent to the publication of the first. We do not perceive that it contains any important observation which is new. Our author traces, from the manners and the habits of the Indians, their peculiar diseases; and he tells us he does not find that they were ever subject to scurvy. Indolence and unalimentary food are the parents of this disease; but to neither are Indians accustomed. We remember, however, in some of the American sieges of the seven years war, to have heard that this disease appeared among them. The venereal disease was, he thinks, communicated by the Europeans; and he observes, that the leprosy, elephantiasis, and scurvy, appear to be different modifications of the same disorder. This is a vague and loose observation, which is only supported by a very distant analogy. If there was a class of diseases, styled depravations, to it each of these might be referred; but the elephantiasis is no more connected with syphilis than with rickets. Their appearing in the middle ages, when Europe, little cultivated, abounded with marshes, might equally prove their connection with bilious, remittent, and putrid fevers. Madness, melancholy, fatuity, and gout, except a few rare instances, where rum has been freely and habitually drank, are unknown among the Indians. Dentition occasions few complaints, and worms seem to produce none.

The Indian remedies are few; and those chiefly natural ones, by increasing the natural evacuations. A piece of rotten wood set on fire, and burning gradually downward like moxa, is not the '*potential*,' but the actual caustic. Their peculiar remedies our author greatly distrusts, and we think with reason: even their boasted remedies for the venereal disease, they assist with profuse perspirations; and they at last sometimes fail. After
much

much enquiry, Dr. Rush never found one well attested case of the efficacy of the Indian specifics. Our author next proceeds to the diseases and remedies of civilized nations; and insists strongly on an observation which we lately made, and which we find has excited attention, as well as drawn forth a little criticism, that nature is often blind, often unequal, and often erroneous in her attempts. The comparative view of each is then given. In this account we perceive violent diseases gradually sinking into the more chronic and more dangerous. Fevers, particularly the violent ones, are in their wane: pleurisies and peripneumonies are sinking into catarrhs and consumptions; and it is supposed that in a few years the gout will be lost in a train of hypochondriac, hysteric, and bilious disorders. Our author is, however, mistaken, when he tells us that the nervous fever does not occur among the epidemics described by Sydenham: it is only disguised by the inflammatory symptoms in the beginning, which still occasionally occur, though they are more mild than formerly. It is the new fever of 1685, described p. 517, ed. Leid. The various details which the comparison affords we cannot abridge; but we may remark, that our author is not one of those speculators who pursue theories too far. However it may appear adviseable, in general, for the mother to be herself the nurse of the child, he thinks, perhaps with reason, that the weak stamina of an infant born of a mother, enervated by dissipation or disease, may be better recruited from the healthy bosom of a robust nurse. It is a new and bold expression, that hospitals and dispensaries exhibit something like the application of the mechanical powers to the purposes of benevolence, since they relieve so great a weight of distress at so little expence. It appears, on the whole, that if civilization introduces some diseases, others are relieved in consequence of its institutions; and it affords more varied and more certain means of cure. Some rules are added for the improvement of the health of the Pennsylvanians in general.

The second Essay is a very interesting one, ‘An Account of the Climate of Pennsylvania, and its Influence on the human Body.’ This province lies between $39^{\circ} 43' 25''$, and 42° north latitude, including about $2^{\circ} 16' 35''$ of latitude from north to south, or about 157 miles. It contains about $5^{\circ} 40' 40''$ in longitude, and Philadelphia is in $75^{\circ} 8'$ west of Greenwich.—We perceive a little affectation, which may be the source of inconveniencies, in an attempt to make the first meridian pass through Philadelphia.—A black mould and a clay cover the ground, while immense beds of lime-stone are found beneath. The Alleganey mountains are about 1300 feet above the plains beneath. The strata, on the west side of these mountains,
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is described in the following forcible language in the *Columbian Magazine* :

‘ The country (says Mr. Rittenhouse in a letter to a friend in Philadelphia), when viewed from the western ridge of the Alleghany, appears to be one vast, extended plain. All the various strata of stone seem to lie undisturbed in the situation in which they were first formed, and the layers of stone, sand, clay, and coal, are nearly horizontal.’

The barometer in Philadelphia is pretty stationary, and its changes rather succeed than precede the changes of weather; the range of the thermometer is not only extensive, but its motions are sudden and considerable within a short space :

‘ From the accounts which have been handed down to us by our ancestors, there is reason to believe that the climate of Pennsylvania has undergone a material change. Thunder and lightning are less frequent, and the cold of our winters and heat of our summers are less uniform, than they were forty or fifty years ago. Nor is this all. The springs are much colder, and the autumns more temperate than formerly, inasmuch that cattle are not housed so soon by one month as they were in former years. Within the last eight years, there have been some exceptions to part of these observations. The winter of the year 1779, 80, was uniformly and uncommonly cold. The river Delaware was frozen near three months during this winter, and public roads for waggons and sleighs connected the city of Philadelphia in many places with the Jersey shore. The thickness of the ice in the river near the city, was from sixteen to nineteen inches, and the depth of the frost in the ground was from four to five feet, according to the exposure of the ground and the quality of the soil. This extraordinary depth of the frost in the earth, compared with its depth in more northern and colder countries, is occasioned by the long delay of snow, which leaves the earth without a covering during the last autumnal and the first winter months. Many plants were destroyed by the intenseness of the cold during this winter. The ears of horned cattle and the feet of hogs exposed to the air, were frost-bitten; squirrels perished in their holes, and partridges were often found dead in the neighbourhood of farm-houses. The mercury in January stood for several hours at 5° below 0, in Fahrenheit’s thermometer; and during the whole of this month (except on one day), it never rose in the city of Philadelphia so high as to the freezing point.’

There are not, however, many days, in summer or winter, when the mercury rises above 80°, or falls below 30°. The highest point, which we find remarked in this essay, is 95° : at Brandywine, about thirty miles from Philadelphia, it is recorded in the *Philosophical Transactions*, that the mercury on the 2d of January, 1787, was at 22° below 0. The mean
8 temperature,

temperature, and the usual heat of the springs is about $52\frac{1}{2}$, we should suspect it to be, more correctly, about $53\frac{1}{2}$ °. In winter, the fair winds are from the north-west, and the rainy ones from the north-east, nearly in the direction of the lakes. The former are cold as well as dry; and the bark of trees is thicker, and the plaster of houses firmer in that than in any other direction. The quantity of water appears to be diminishing: many creeks are dry, and many mills are become useless: this can hardly be attributed to the formation of meadows, for as much water would be gained by draining as could possibly be lost by ditching. Floods from quickly thawing ice and storms are still common; but the latter less so than in some former years.

In Pennsylvania inflammatory fevers have declined, in proportion to the progress of luxury, as in other places. The fevers from miasmata, the bilious and putrid remittents, have increased as the wood has been cleared without cultivation; and diminished as cultivation has been employed. Damps without heat are not injurious; and almost every kind of weather, when long continued, is healthy, except when peculiar winds bring the exhalations of marshes. Of particular diseases we may mention a typhus, complicated with pneumonia, a circumstance not very uncommon in Pennsylvania and some northern countries, which has been attributed to the great sedative power of violent cold. It is less common in England. Various other facts of importance, but chiefly local, are recorded in this essay.

The account of the bilious remittent fever, as it appeared in Philadelphia in the summer and autumn of the year 1780, follows. It was a fever from a moist powerful sedative cause, and, independent of the local affection, seems not very unlike the influenza of 1782, which every one who felt will remember. The general determination was to the biliary system, though it occasionally affected the lungs. The following fact was peculiar to both epidemics, and the conclusion is of very great importance, as well as applicable to every fever.

† I constantly recommended to my patients, in this stage of the disorder, to lie in bed. This favoured the eruption of the rash, and the solution of the disease by perspiration. Persons who struggled against the fever by sitting up, or who attempted to shake it off by labour or exercise, either sunk under it, or had a slow recovery.

‡ A clergyman of a respectable character from the country, who was attacked by the disease in the city, returned home,

* The heat of April is fifty-four degrees three-tenths, and the mean heat of April at Pittsburg, two hundred and eighty four miles west of Philadelphia, in the year 1783, was fifty-seven degrees one-third.

from

from a desire of being attended by his own family, and died in a few days afterwards. This is only one, of many cases, in which I have observed travelling, even in the easiest carriages, to prove fatal in fevers after they were formed, or after the first symptoms had shewn themselves. The quickest and most effectual way of conquering a fever, in most cases, is, by an early submission to it.'

The practice was very judicious; but we find nothing peculiarly useful to transcribe or abridge. Opium succeeded very well in this epidemic.

The next essay is an account of the *Scarlatina Anginosa*, as it appeared in Philadelphia in the years 1783 and 1784. The principal peculiarity of the complaint was the frequent occurrence of swelling in the neck, and near the fauces; but we do not perceive that there was any tendency to suppuration in the tumors, except in two cases, which ended fatally. Delirium seems to have been owing to the excess of debility, and not, as occurred in a similar epidemic in England, soon after that period, a common attendant. It arose, in Pennsylvania, from violent and continued rains, attended with very inconstant alternations of very great heat and cold. The only peculiarity which we find in the practice, was giving calomel with the emetics, chiefly, we apprehend, to secure stools, though our author speaks as if he thought it possessed also some specific power. In 1787, many persons were affected with sudden swellings on their eyelids and lips; these Dr. Rush supposes to be connected with the epidemic, which continued to prevail, even at that time.

The *Cholera Infantum* seems to depend on the heat of the season. The bilious discharges are violent, and often foetid: the fever of the remitting kind, attended with great debility and insensibility; sometimes the head is affected, so as to produce delirium or mania. It appears to be connected with the cholera and remitting fever of adults. The remedies are the mildest evacuants, both of the stomach and bowels; the occasional and prudent use of opiates in the stomach, rectum, or in external applications; warm cordials and tonics. The chief dependence is, however, on country air, as if there was something deleterious in the atmosphere of Philadelphia. The rules for preventing the diseases consist in changing the air, and keeping up the *vis vitæ* by the moderate use of cordials.

Dr. Rush now thinks that there is a *cynanche trachealis humida*, as well as *spasmodica*. These are probably the extremes; but from the few cases which occur in England, it is not easy to ascertain the fact. We have reason to believe that both kinds are generally united; and, though it has been our fate to see chiefly the humid cases, we have almost always seen

marks

marks of spasm. Dr. Cullen is, we suspect, generally right, when he considers some catarrhal inflammation as the foundation of the disease. Our author thinks calomel almost a specific: a large dose is given at first, and then smaller doses every day. We should be glad to find that this would succeed.

In all autumnal intermittents, our author tells us, that if the bark fails, after two or three days trial, it will usually be successful after blisters have been applied to the wrists. But if, from neglect or accident, the disease should be protracted to the winter months, it may be cured by one or two moderate bleedings. The first part reminds us of an empirical practice of applying plasters of *pix Burgund.* to the wrists. We remember, that in a case of great debility, we allowed of the application, because the patient would take bitters to recover her strength, but objected to the use of the bark. She employed both remedies, and was cured; though the dispute still remains between us which was the effectual one. If Dr. Rush's two observations should seem trifling, he assures us of their being well founded.

Drinking very cold water, when the thermometer is above 85° is attended with violent pains, spasms, and often apparent death. The remedy is laudanum; and the subsequent inflammations that may attend are cured in the usual way. The efficacy of common salt in the cure of hæmoptysis, we mentioned in our review of the last volume of the *Memoirs of the Medical Society*. From a tea to a table spoonful is given immediately, and repeated every day. It is useful in active as well as passive hæmorrhages, and its effects may be owing to its stimulant power on the œsophagus, by which it draws away the fluids from the lungs.

In the Observations on Consumptions we find a singular, perhaps a just remark: 'That the remedies must be sought for in those exercises and employments which give the greatest vigour to the constitution.' Many instances are adduced, where a change from a sedentary to an active life, even in exposed situations, have cured phthises. If this change be impracticable, tonics, and those remedies which keep up the vigour and force of the constitution, are to be substituted; but the employment of these we do not yet understand. There is one excellent and just observation relating to the disease. With the greatest debility of the constitution there is often an inflammatory diathesis of the arterial system, which requires an antiphlogistic plan, and the mildest diet; when that goes off, tonics and full diet are proper. Ah! that 'when'—'how sad a passage 'tis!' It often remains during the life; but there is still a foundation for the remark; when its violence is lessened, when there is a want of vigour in the constitution, when the lighter diet cannot be taken
in

in any quantity, or when it apparently fails of supporting the strength, the food may be more nourishing. We point out this more freely, as we own that we have carried our instructions on this rule too far, and insisted more strongly and more indiscriminately on low diet than experience warrants. But where is the practitioner who at any period of his life can say, 'I am now perfect; I can learn no more?' This indirect stimulus, or inflammatory diathesis confined to the arterial system, should be often kept in view, particularly when luxurious, sedentary, or fashionable females are the patients.

Dr. Rush next offers his opinion on worms and on anthelmintic medicines. It is commonly supposed that worms are almost a part of children's constitutions; and it is an observation of the North American Indians, that the fever brings the worms, not worms the fever. Our author goes farther, and asks, whether disorders may not arise from the want of worms? In *eighteen rats*, which were killed, a kind of *tænia* was found in the livers of all except two, and these were in a very lean state. Our author, with great propriety, rejects worms as a cause of fever; but thinks many of the chronic and nervous diseases of children owing to them. We have been accustomed to think the same, and have given anthelmintic medicines, by which the disease has been sometimes cured without any worms being discharged; and a very great number of worms have been evacuated in other instances, without any effect on the disease. The whole subject is, therefore, so far, in the same uncertainty as before. Our author's experiments on the effects of different substances on earth-worms are very uncertain; and yet he applies them to the intestinal worms with much confidence. We need make no observations on the circumstances, which in these experiments seem not to have been attended to; but may remark, that the most poisonous substances to worms were acids, alkalis, and neutrals; the most innocent, jalap, bearsfoot, and gamboge. Arsenic scarcely injured them; and rum was highly poisonous. Opium, pink-root, and tobacco, were not so injurious as honey, sugar, and manna. Green vitriol killed worms in a minute; and calomel only after forty-nine minutes. We need not add any thing more to warrant our concluding, that these experiments are wholly inapplicable. The anthelmintic virtue of common salt rests on a better foundation than these trials: it has been often found to be useful by experience, in doses of about half a drachm every morning, on an empty stomach. Oil of turpentine, as well as the juices of onions and garlic, are often useful. Dr. Rush knows no more *certain* anthelmintic than pink-root: we find it weak and inefficient, probably because we do not use it fresh. With us the bearsfoot is a more *certain*

tain remedy against worms than any given medicine in any assigned complaint, not excepting the reputed specifics, mercury and bark; and this not from two or three cases, but as many hundreds, perhaps as many thousands. We must not conclude our account of this essay without remarking, that Dr. Rush gives green vitriol, in a dose from five to thirty grains every morning to children between one and ten years old. To adults, from the experience of an old sea-captain, he gives from two drachms to half an ounce, every morning for four or five days. This empirical practice was recommended and succeeded with the captain in discharging a tænia.

The external Use of Arsenic in the Cure of Cancers; Observations on the Cause and Cure of Tetanus, with the Result of Observations made on the Diseases which occurred in the Hospitals of the United States during the late War, we have already examined. The Influence of the Military and Political Events of the American Revolution on the Human Mind, affords many curious instances of the effects of a lively interest, robust exertions, hope, fear, despondency, and joy. The Inquiry into the Relation of Tastes and Aliments to each other, and the Influence of this Relation on Health and Pleasure, is curious, but often fanciful, and, at best, imperfect.

The Appendix contains 'Observations on the Duties of a Physician, and the Methods of improving Medicine, accommodated to the present State of Society and Manners in the United State.' Many of the observations in this little essay are local, but others are adapted to every situation and every climate: the whole of this Appendix, and indeed of the volume before us, reflects the highest credit on the judgment and candour, the knowledge and experience of its author.

Observations upon the Expediency of Revising the present English Version of the Four Gospels, and of the Acts of the Apostles.
By John Symonds, LL. D. 4to. 10s. 6d. sewed. Payne and Son.

WHILE we have felt, with their full force, the disagreeable impressions which incorrect translation, and occasionally inelegant language, can produce, we have hesitated, or spoken with cautious apprehension, concerning the propriety of a revival, or at least a revival of the present English version of the Bible for popular use. Common minds can with difficulty discriminate between the language and the substance; and, in losing the one they will be in no little anxiety respecting the other: besides, that the long use of writings, avowedly sacred, gives a venerable air to the language, and seems almost to consecrate it to the service of religion.

ligion. The inconveniencies which arise from the errors, or from those errors which affect the sense, are so often obviated in the pulpits and occasional tracts, that we suspect their danger is magnified, while we are certain that their importance is exaggerated. The pious error of our translators, in rendering *αἰών*, *damnation*, does not, we believe, at this time keep any one from the Lord's table. But, when we have shortly recapitulated the reasons which formerly induced us, and they have not yet lost their force, to doubt of the propriety of a new version, we need scarcely add, that they do not militate against the liberal attempts of the learned and candid critic, who writes for the classical reader. We have warmly and cheerfully praised Dr. Campbell's volumes; and our author's candour, liberality, and learning command our warmest esteem. From labours like his religion will be divested of her gloomy and monastic air; the sacred writings will attract the attention of the man of taste and learning; and Christianity will be established on a firmer basis. We could wish only that the peasant may retain his former version, and trust to the pastoral care of his spiritual instructor to obviate the errors into which our former translators may possibly lead him.

Dr. Symonds will excuse us for the distinction we thought it necessary to make; and we shall now proceed to give some account of his labours. His chief care has been, he tells us, to compare our present version with several translations in different languages, which was actually done by king James's translators; and to point out the principal ambiguities and faults in our own. Our author aims not at a full examination, and begs his reader's excuse if any unintentional plagiarism in it should be observed, since he has religiously ascribed every observation to its proper author, where he knew the observation had been made before. We ought not to omit the warm eulogium, at the conclusion of the preface, on the late Mr. Harmer, whose learning seems to have been the least of his qualifications: he was meek, modest, temperate, conciliating, unaffectedly pious, and indiscriminately benevolent.

Perspicuity, our author observes, is not only the chief beauty of style, but essentially requisite in a version of the Holy Scriptures: the ambiguities, however, in the English version are numerous. It is often difficult to find the antecedent to which the relatives refer, and sometimes there seems to be none: at least there is none in the detached portion read in churches, by the arbitrary, and often improper division into chapters. It is remarkable, that of all the numerous versions

examined by our author, not one is to be found wholly free from this defect. The third chapter relates to it; and the first instance is Matthew iii. 16. where 'he saw' is supposed to refer to John. Dr. Campbell, we perceive, has avoided this difficulty, perhaps at the risk of a little inaccuracy. He says, 'the Spirit of God appeared;' but ~~we~~ can scarcely have this power. The antecedent in Matthew v. 12. is, we think, sufficiently perspicuous; but our author's alteration renders it more so. Dr. Symonds proceeds, and points out various ambiguities in each of the four Gospels, and in the Acts of the Apostles; but those, which depend on the omission of Jesus, can perhaps be scarcely styled ambiguities, for He, without any antecedent, can, in general, be understood of no other person. As we shall endeavour to select an interesting instance of each fault, we shall transcribe the observation on Luke v. 17.

"And it came to pass on a certain day as he was teaching, that there were Pharisees and doctors of the law sitting by, ~~which~~ were come from every town of Galilee, and Judæa, and Jerusalem, and the power of the Lord was present to heal them." Dr. Macknight observes in his very useful essay, that the relative pronoun *αυτες*, in this verse, refers not to the Pharisees, and doctors of the law, who are just before mentioned, but to such sick people as were in the crowd; agreeably to the use of relative pronouns*. This may be true in respect to a Greek relative pronoun; but an English one must necessarily refer to the nearest, and not to a remote antecedent. We should therefore render it; το ιασθαι αυτες, "to heal those who had diseases." The author of the version of Mops has avoided any obscurity; "la vertu du Seigneur agissoit pour la guerison des malades." So likewise L'Entant and Beaufobre: "la vertu du Seigneur se deploya dans la guerison des malades." And Wickliff has judiciously departed from the Vulgate on this occasion: "And the vertu of the Lord was to heele syk men."—Perhaps it would not be improper to place a colon after *μουσθαι αυτους*, and to read with the Cambridge MS. *μουσθαι αυτους*, &c. in which case this verse might be thus rendered: "While Jesus was teaching on a certain day, several Pharisees and doctors of the law were sitting by: and there were also those who came out of every town of Galilee, and Judæa, and from Jerusalem; and the power of the Lord was present to heal them."

The Cambridge MS. is, we believe, singular in this reading, though, so far as we can perceive, it is the only mo-

* "Essay iv. on translating the Greek language used by the writers of the N. T. p. 49.—Mr. Pilkington, in his Remarks, &c. p. 99. quotes Luke v. 17. and seems to have too hastily defended the indeterminate use of pronouns in the English language."

method of avoiding the ambiguity in the original, for Dr. MacKnight's observation is too indiscriminate. Dr. Campbell has very properly rendered the passage in this manner: 'One day, as he was teaching, and Pharisees and doctors of law were sitting by, who had come from Jerusalem, and from every town of Galilee and Judea, the power of the Lord was exerted in the cure of the sick.' Dr. Symonds' observation on Luke vii. 29. respecting the phrase of justifying God, is perfectly proper. Perhaps Dr. Campbell's 'glorified' is not the most correct version of *δικαιωσας*, our author's 'acknowledged the justice,' is much more proper.

The next source of ambiguity is the use of equivocal expressions. In Matthew xviii. 23. 'Would take an account of his servants,' instead of, settle his accounts with his servants, is an instance of this kind; 'worship,' instead of humbly intreat (*προσκυνω*, Matth. xviii. 26.), is another; and, indeed, as Dr. Symonds very justly observes, the word *worship* is too often used in the sacred writ without sufficient authority:

'Acts vii. 38. "Who received the *lively* oracles to give unto us." Wetstein mentions *λογος* as being in the editions of Erasmus, Colinaeus, &c. and this was the reading adopted by the Vulgate, which seems to be unexceptionable. Thus Wickliff: "the wordis of lyf," and to the same purport in Tyndal, Coverdale, and the Bishop's Bible. But if we retain the common reading, viz. *λογος ζωντα*, we must at least render it, "the living oracles," and expunge the equivocal epithet "lively."

Another source of ambiguity is occasioned by an indeterminate use of prepositions. But this chapter furnishes nothing very interesting, and indeed nothing *very* ambiguous; though from this cause there are many inelegancies, which might be safely, if silently rectified.

The sixth chapter is on passages ungrammatical; and these also, though they greatly injure the elegance of the sacred writings, have no great effect on the perspicuity. The learned can easily correct them, and the unlearned use the same language. The first part relates to participles, and the modes and times of verbs; but, with respect to the modes and times of verbs, the language had not at that period, nor many years afterwards, attained to a moderate share of correctness. Even Addison uses the indicative after the hypothetical conjunction. Though this be a fault, it cannot, therefore, be with more propriety imputed to the translators than that they had not employed in their version the Sanscrit, or sacred language of Bengal. Besides, at this time, we have not properly established the past tense of many verbs, as those of to eat, to spit, or to read—ate, spat, and redde, though they have been employed,

ed, are uncouth and unpleasant. The following translation of John xix. 24. is undoubtedly very reprehensible in our version :

"They said therefore among themselves, Let us not *rent* it, &c." Either "rend it," or "divide it," as in Tyndal, and in most of our old versions.—There is a worse fault in Matth. xxvii. 51. "And behold ! the veil of the temple was *rent in twain* [in two, or, in pieces] from the top to the bottom ; and the earth *did quake* [trembled], and the rocks *rent* [were rent.]" There are undoubtedly some English verbs which have both an active and a neuter signification ; but the verb "to rend" is not of this class ; yet even if it were, it would be improperly used in its two forms, in the same sentence ; for this, how agreeable soever to the learned languages, seems contrary to the genius of our own."

The adverbs, Dr. Symonds remarks, are often misplaced, sometimes nugatory ; and the adverb 'also' occasionally destroys the sense of the original. The first instance of this kind is a very striking one : it is in Matth. ii. 8.

"And he sent them to Bethlehem, and said, Go and search diligently for the young child, and when ye have found him, bring me word *again*, that I may come and worship him *also*." Bishop Pearce saw, that the adverb *also*, in this verse, ought to refer to Herod ; for the words of the original are *ἔρχεσθαι αὐτῷ*, &c. but our translators, by misplacing it, have connected it with "the child Jesus." Herod says to the wise men, "When ye have found him, bring me word, that I *also* (i. e. as well as you) may go and worship him." But our present version conveys a very different sense, and makes the pronoun "him" emphatical, instead of "I," as if he had said, "that I may go and worship Jesus, as well as worship others."

In Luke xxiii. 32. it is said, and there were *also* two other malefactors led with him ; a translation which is obviously exceptionable in more than one respect. Dr. Symonds has examined this text particularly, and seems to approve of H. Stephens' and Mr. Bowyer's putting *καὶ ἄλλοι* between commas. Dr. Priestley has followed the same method—"and there were also two others, malefactors, led with him." Dr. Campbell, we think, more neatly and happily has translated, 'and two malefactors were also led with him to execution.'—Omitting the offensive word *ἑτέροις*. But, if we recollect rightly, there are some MSS. particularly one in the Bodleian library, where the whole verse is wanting. In the translation of Acts xxvi. 26. 'also' is used improperly ; before whom I *also* speak freely. The *καὶ* in the original is evidently illative, and should have been translated 'therefore,' for 'I am

'I am persuaded,' adds Paul, 'that none of these things are hidden from him.'

The third grammatical error relates to the improper use of prepositions and conjunctions. The following note connected only with the subject in its first part, may be of use to many of our readers, who would be angry at being styled illiterate :

"Matth. xiii. 57. And they were offended *in him*." It ought to be "*at him*," as in Coverdale. — It will not be improper here to speak of the manner, though it hath often been remarked, in which king James's translators have rendered *σκανδαλίζω*, in ch. v. 29, 30. and in other passages. "If thy right eye offend thee, pluck it out,—and if thy right hand offend thee, cut it off. These translators looked upon themselves as authorised to insert nonsense into the text, provided they foisted the true meaning into the margin; for we find in it this reading, "cause thee to offend." But ought they not rather to have rendered it in the text "make thee to offend," or, "cause thee to offend," (as, in fact, it is in the Geneva Bible) than to affect the parade of a marginal note, which would be consulted by very few readers? So Matth. xviii. 6. "*Whoso shall offend one of these little ones*." If it had been translated thus: "*Whoever shall cause one of these little ones to offend*," it might be easily understood by the common people; whereas they must now take it in a sense directly opposite.'

Dr. Symonds observes, that 'and' appears in not fewer than two hundred passages in the Gospels as a connecting particle, when the sentences ought to have been disjoined. In the 9th chapter of Luke are 62 verses, of which 41 begin with this conjunction.

The fourth error is, where the pronouns are either superfluous, deficient, or ungrammatical; but numerous instances of these must occur to any one who reflects for a moment. The fifth is where the definite article 'the' is improperly used; the sixth where the verb precedes in the singular number, when it ought to be in the plural, as in Luke v. 9. For he was astonished and all that (who) were with him. In John xv. 6. is an instance of a pronoun used in the plural, when the substantive with which it agrees is in the singular.

The seventh and eighth chapter is upon mean and vulgar, on obsolete and harsh expressions; but though we allow that these injure the elegance of a version, and sometimes detract from its dignity, they do not often mislead those who seek for instruction in the sacred writings. The translation quoted (Luke xii. 29.) of *οὐ μετάνοιᾶς*, 'neither be ye of doubtful mind,' is indeed inaccurate as well as inelegant. A few of the vulgar expressions may also mislead: 'whose fan is in his hand;

hand; and he will thoroughly purge his floor,' can scarcely be understood even by our threshers and winnowers.

Dr. Symonds proceeds to show the necessity of a literal translation, by which he means what we have formerly called a suitable corresponding version, that represents nearly the style, the peculiarities, and the distinguishing features of the original. To illustrate his idea of a literal version, he has compared that of Castalio and Dr. Harwood; the former of which is clear, faithful, and elegant; the latter diffusive and improperly adorned with adventitious images of modern life. But to a literal version there must be exceptions, for sometimes the language will not admit of an intelligible literal translation. In the first instance, Matth. iv. 23. *το ευαγγελιον της βασιλειας*, is unintelligible in the common English Bible, 'the Gospel of the kingdom,' and not quite properly rendered by Dr. Campbell, 'glad tidings of the reign:' it should be certainly translated, glad tidings of the kingdom, that is, the kingdom of God. The second instance, *ευημερευετε υμιν*, may, we think, be translated without any great ambiguity, literally; again, we think no great difficulty can arise from translating *οι εξω*, Mark iv. 11. 'those without,' for the word certainly excludes, by their tenour and the context, every one but the disciples. Mark might perhaps allude to the *isoteric* and *exoteric* doctrines.

Sometimes the times of verbs will not admit of a translation perfectly literal; and this deviation is absolutely necessary, since the genius and idiom of each language often differ; so that what may be good Greek is bad English. The third circumstance, in which we must give up a literal translation is, where the peculiar forms of expression are repugnant to the English idioms. A strong instance of this we find in rendering the word *αποκριθεις*, 'answering,' which it literally means in a few passages; but this translation often renders the whole absurd, as an answer appears to be given where no question is asked, and sometimes to things inanimate; Matth. xi. 25. and Mark xi. 13. afford passages of this kind. The meaning undoubtedly is, as Dr. Priestley has rendered it, 'at that time Jesus took occasion to say,' or, according to Dr. Campbell, 'On that occasion Jesus said,'—*Αεχμα* is often an expletive, though it has, in more than one instance, a peculiar force. The distinction our author has properly pointed out, and we find it is well preserved in Dr. Campbell's translation. *Λαλει* is a similar word, and often an expletive. Opening his mouth, *απολας το σπμα*, is not always an expletive, or an Hebraism. Our author seems to think that it may be occasionally translated, 'He raised his voice,

and said: Dr. Campbell, in Matth. v. 2. has translated it, perhaps as well, 'breaking silence.'

A comparison of two chapters, viz. the second of Matth. and the twelfth of the Acts, as they are translated in Cramer's, or the Great Bible, Lond. 1541.—The Geneva Bible, 1560, Parker's, or the Bishop's Bible, Lond. 1568, and King James's, or the present version, 1611, with critical notes on these chapters, and some comparative observations on the printing and language of the English Bibles, are subjoined.

We need not perhaps add any thing to the praise we have already bestowed on Dr. Symonds. We have followed him with care, as an author of no common candour and judgment, on a subject universally interesting. We may also add, that we have followed him, as we think his own work shows; that if any danger can result from an alteration for popular use, it should not be attempted, since there are few errors which very materially affect the sense; still fewer perhaps, in the passages most essential to the well-being of a Christian; and probably none which may not be safely obviated in our pulpits. We very highly respect not only the talents, but the strict veneration for Christianity which our author displays; and we are fully convinced that a real regard and unaffected zeal for religion have alone impelled him to this undertaking.

A New Translation of those Parts only of the New Testament, which are wrongly translated in our common Version. By Gilbert Wakefield. B. A. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Deighton.

MR. Wakefield's talents and classical acquisitions are well known; and his attention to biblical criticism has been, before this time, successfully exerted. It is not easy, however, to give a full account of a work which consists of detached passages. We shall endeavour to unite it with our former articles, by selecting those texts which we have noticed in the translation of Dr. Campbell and the observations of Dr. Symonds.

The 11th verse of the 19th chapter of St. John he translates, 'Unless I had been given up to thee from above.' This is certainly improper, unless the original word had been *ἀδυστος*, for *τις* is the third person of the past tense in the Attic dialect. The 35th verse Mr. Wakefield has inverted, and, we think, explained erroneously.—'And he who saw this beareth testimony of it, that ye may believe; and this testimony is true, and Jesus himself knoweth that he speaketh truth.' The inversion will be obvious on the comparison with our former quo-

tation from Dr. Campbell. The reference to Jesus, though the antecedent, be very distant, is, in some degree, supported by the emphatic word *καὶ*; but there is no sufficient reason to disturb the old readings. Matth. iii. and 16. Mr. Wakefield translates, in conformity to Dr. Symonds's idea, 'And the heavens were opened unto John.' In Acts vii. 38. Mr. Wakefield translates *λογια ζωης*, 'the oracles of life,' with strict propriety. In Matth. v. 29. 'Cause you to sin,' is very properly substituted for 'offend.' The difficult passage of Luke xxiii. 32. is rendered by our author nearly in the way which Henry Stephens and his followers have done:—'two others, who were malefactors.' Settle his accounts with, instead of 'take account of,' Matth. xviii. 23. occurs also in the work. The other passages, already cited, are not noticed in Mr. Wakefield's work.

We shall now proceed to select a few texts, which Mr. Wakefield thinks require correction; and we shall choose one or two from each of the Evangelists which appear interesting, without searching either for those only where we think the author mistaken, or those where his alterations are well founded. We were surprised to find Mr. Wakefield, whose classical taste is well known, early confounding two metaphors, 'And which of you by his anxiety can add a single *cubit* to his *age*.' (Matth. vii. 27.) *ἡλικία* means undoubtedly stature and age. The last signification occurs particularly in Heb. xi. 11. and in the translation of Job; but we need not dwell on it, since this is the meaning our author has adopted, and which is supported by the context. Why then will he preserve the literal meaning of *πηχυς*, which is no inconsiderable measure? Wetstein's conjecture is a very plausible one; and, if we disturb the common reading, which is not so incorrect as to excite any great attention, we would rather read, according to his idea; 'and which of you, by his anxiety, can add a cubit to his race.' The life of man, in Scripture, often signifies, metaphorically, a course, or race.

Matth. v. 14. he translates;

'Ye are the light of the world. As a city set on a hill cannot be hid; and as men do *not* light a LAMP, and put it under the bushel, but upon the STAND, that it may shine to all in the house: so let your light shine before men.'

But we think without any evident advantage.

In Matth. ix. 16. Mr. Wakefield's new translation is literal, but not very clear:

'No one putteth a piece of new cloth to an old garment; FOR IT TAKES AWAY FROM THE ENTIRENESS OF THE GARMENT, and a worse rent is made.'

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The correction in Mark xv. 44. is a very proper one:

'And Pilate wondered, that he should be dead already: so he called the centurion unto him, and asked him, if he had indeed died some time since.'

That *he* has the force, in many instances, of 'that,' has been shown, we believe, by more than one critic.

Luke xxi. 25 and 26. Mr. Wakefield has translated in the following words:

'—Distress of nations, perplexed BY A NOISE AND MOTION OF THE SEA: men's hearts failing them through a fearful expectation of those things, which are coming on the world.'

The passage is undoubtedly obscure: the words, *ηχουσις θαλασσης και θαλου*, whose full force Mr. Wakefield has not preserved, are not found in the Cambridge MS. and indeed the distinction between *θαλασσης* and *θαλυ* is not very evident. On the whole, our translator seems not to have succeeded very happily in this verse. The 29th and 30th verses of the subsequent chapter are very correctly rendered:

'And, as my Father hath granted unto me a kingdom, I GRANT UNTO YOU TO EAT and to drink at my table in THIS my kingdom.'

The 39th verse of the 5th chapter of John is thus rendered:

'YE SEARCH the Scriptures, *because* ye think *that* ye have in them eternal life: YET THOUGH they testify of me, ye will not come to me, that ye *may* have life.'

In this correction our author has done some service, but has not, we think, given its whole force.—The 'yet though,' is a very awkward expression. Our Saviour says more pointedly: 'Ye search the Scriptures, as you expect to obtain from them eternal life: these also (*και ουνοι*), testify of me, and you will not come unto me, that you may live.' The latter end of 44th verse of the 8th chapter is, we think, also correctly rendered:

'The devil *is* your father, and accordingly ye are ready to perform the lusts of your father. He was a murderer from the beginning, and continued not in the truth, because there is no truth in him. WHEN ANY MAN SPEAKETH A LIE, HE SPEAKETH SUITABLY TO HIS OWN KINDRED; FOR HIS FATHER ALSO IS A LIAR.'

Some little objection may be made to the first part of the verse, as it appears in Mr. Wakefield's translation, but it is inconsiderable.

On the whole, we think our author has added to the stock of biblical philology, though we cannot recommend his translations, without a little reserve and some discrimination. He has not mentioned many important passages, and some which occur
are,

are, we suspect, erroneously translated. We must however own, that the form in which the translations are published, is not very favourable to enforce conviction. We have neither the original, the common version, or, what is more important, the author's reasons. We give full credit to his learning and ingenuity, and shall receive with great satisfaction his larger work.

Aristotle's Treatise on Poetry, translated: with Notes on the Translation, and on the Original; and Two Dissertations, on Poetical, and Musical Imitation. By Thomas Twining, M. A.
4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Robinsons.

The Poetic of Aristotle, translated from the Greek, with Notes. By Henry James Pye, Esq. Small 8vo. 4s. in Boards, Stockdale.

IT has been common to decry this valuable Treatise, and to consider it as the fetters of the aspiring genius, the chain which binds him to the ground, and compels him to creep with insipid tameness. It might be more strictly styled, a salutary restraint on the extravagance of fancy, and an attempt to reduce to rules, at once precise and philosophical, what the poet's eye only catches at in part, and what his imagination might embody with discordant and disproportioned additions. In another, and more important, probably in a more accurate view, it may be considered as rules to form the judgment of the critic, by separating the different parts of which the whole consists, and pointing out the relative importance, and the proper conduct of each. The subject is examined with a philosophical precision, and treated with a scholastic closeness, which lead us to the latter system, as probably the author's design: the imagination and the passions are in no part addressed; and, if another and more appropriated title were to be adopted, we might call it the Philosophy of Criticism. We are aware of the objections which have been so often made to the coldness of the professed critic; of the authority which has said, that a performance should be reviewed with the spirit with which it was written, and of the great example among our own countrymen, who carried the effects of tragedy to the highest pitch, without any acquaintance with the 'Poetic' or its author. These have no effect on our present argument: if it be of importance to analyse any subject, or if it be probable that it will be better conducted when the dependencies and their relative consequence be ascertained, Aristotle has not written in vain. If imagination and fire be added to a regularly connected plan; if the warmest poetry be brought to adorn a plot conducted with philosophical accuracy,

accuracy, will it have a worse effect than if it be the garb of a monstrous farce? and, to come nearer to the purpose, if Shakspeare's wildness and imagery, his living characters and the magic of his description, had been united to more probable events, we have no reason to suppose that they would have lost their force. The opponents of critical regularity, as their last effort, fly to a gratuitous hypothesis, and tell us, that the phlegmatic attention which the one requires is inconsistent with the spirit and glowing flame which can alone dislate the other. The hypothesis is not only gratuitous, but the fact is unjustly stated, for the Stagyrice gives no rules inconsistent with nature, none whose incongruity and absurdity require arguments for their confirmation. Every person feels their truth and propriety; but few, without equal acuteness, a precision and justness of thought as strictly philosophical, would perhaps have discovered them. But we must no longer run from our subject, which is properly an examination of two translations, rather than a defence of the 'Poetic.'

In the English language we have already two versions of this beautiful Treatise, or rather of that part of it which remains, since what relates to comedy is lost; and the original, in our hands, seems to have suffered by age, by accident, and by ignorant transcribers. The first English 'Art of Poetry' was printed in 1705, professedly translated from the original, with Dacier's notes in an English dress, but more probably translated from M. Dacier's version, with marginal elucidations from the original. The language is antiquated, unpleasant, and often incorrect. Another version appeared in 1775, which we noticed in our XLth volume, p. 393: this is so nearly literal as to displease the reader of taste, and be unintelligible to many who are not well informed. Our authors, for we now refer to the translators before us, have engaged in the task with all the advantages of great learning and a correct taste. Yet they occasionally differ; and, if Aristotle could write to Alexander that his publications were intelligible only to his pupils, we ought not to be surprised that, after a period of two thousand years, two men of learning should differ in the interpretation of a few abstruse, probably mutilated, passages.

Mr. Pye preceded Mr. Twining in this attempt; but we mean not to slight him by considering the latter in the first rank. As we cannot easily examine both the translations in one article, we shall consider the pretensions of each in this Number, as well as the adventitious parts of Mr. Twining's volume: we mean his two Dissertations. We shall then be able, without any interruption, to examine the translations and the notes.

In the prefaces each translator appears with credit. Their
object

object seems to have been nearly the same; for, when Mr. Pye tells us that he has ‘endeavoured to render in English, as clearly as possible, what he conceived to be the meaning of Aristotle, and as nearly in his own words’ (similar words would probably have been more correct), ‘as was consistent with perspicuity’—or when Mr. Twining tells us that his object was ‘to produce a version sufficiently close and accurate to satisfy those readers who are acquainted with the original, and at the same time sufficiently *English* to be read by those who are not,’ they nearly speak the same language. Mr. Twining seems intimately acquainted with the more modern versions in the different languages of Europe; and Mr. Pye explains with great propriety, though concisely, the nature and the peculiar features of the Grecian drama. The arrangement of each is the same: Mr. Pye’s divisions are more modern, and we think more pleasing. One passage from Mr. Twining’s preface we shall extract, for we think the observation is new and accurate.

‘I must however remark one point of view, in which the criticism of Aristotle has always particularly struck me, though it seems to have been little noticed: and that is, that his philosophy, austere and cold as it appears, has not encroached upon his taste. He has not indeed *expressed* that taste by mixing the language of admiration with that of philosophy in his investigation of principles, but he has *discovered* it in those principles themselves; which, in many respects at least, are truly *poetical* principles, and such as afford no countenance to that sort of criticism, which requires the poet to be “of *reason* all compact.” Aristotle, on the contrary, every where reminds him, that it is his business to represent, not what *is*, but what *should* be; to look beyond actual and common nature, to the ideal model of perfection in his own mind. He sees fully, what the *rationalists* among modern critics have not always seen, the power of popular *opinion* and *belief* upon poetical credibility—that “a legend, a tale, a tradition, a rumour, a superstition—in short, any thing, is enough to be the basis of the poet’s air-formed *visions*.” He never loses sight of the *end* of poetry, which, in conformity to common sense, he held to be *pleasure*. He is ready to excuse, not only impossibilities, but even absurdities, where that *end* appears to be better answered with them, than it would have been without them. In a word; he asserts the privileges of poetry, and gives her free range to employ her *whole* power, and to do all she *can* do—that is, to impose upon the imagination, by whatever means, as far as imagination, for the sake of its own pleasure, will consent to be imposed upon. Poetry can do no more than this, and, from its very nature and end, ought not to be required to do less. If it is our interest to be cheated, it is her duty to cheat us. The critic, who suffers his philosophy to reason away his pleasure,

is not much wiser than the child, who cuts open his drum, to see what it is within that caused the sound.'

Mr. Pye's more general criticisms will probably appear in a distinct work:

'What I propose, says he, is a continued commentary on the Poetic, illustrated by examples drawn from the modern, and particularly the English drama; an inquiry into the nature of imitation as effected by the arts, and especially by poetry; a comparison of the advantages and defects of the ancient and modern drama; and an examination of Aristotle's ideas of the nature and end of tragedy, from which what we commonly term poetical justice seems excluded, and his predilection for the unhappy catastrophe, where all are involved in common distress, in preference to that where vice alone is punished and virtue rewarded, and how far these ideas are applicable to the modern drama, and modern manners, as distinguished from those of antiquity.'

His notes are chiefly philological; seldom extensive; but generally satisfactory.

Mr. Twining's first Dissertation is on Poetry considered as an Imitative Art. This subject has employed much time, and been discussed with an accuracy and minuteness that, we think, might have been often better employed. The difficulty is chiefly of our own creation: let us, with our author, analyse the knot which we have first tied, for he considers the subject with great propriety. If Poetry is imitative, it must be either in its sound or its signification. We would not deny in every instance admitted that the sound is an echo to the sense: it frequently is so to the intelligent ear, but fancy has multiplied instances of this kind till the subject becomes disgusting. In the signification poetry is often imitative: it is said to paint the landscape, and it is pretty strictly true, for it imitates, in its address to the understanding, the images which the real objects present to the mind. Yet, in general, it imitates the outlines only, and, from its nature, excites ideas more general, more indiscriminate, and more faint: it is, however, so far strictly imitative. Of the impressions made on the other senses, its imitations are less exact. Mr. Twining next considers sound; but on this subject, we think we must refer to the former head, for we can scarcely, in any instance, consider poetry as imitative of the nature and significations of sounds, independent of the pronunciation. But let us be more explicit. Loud or gentle sounds may be described by their effects, where we approach the first division, and consider poetry as imitative of the impressions made by sight: they may be described too by verbal combinations, as they influence the sound of the voice in reading, when they become again

again an echo to the sense. In the passage adduced by our author from Milton, the imitation is, we think, of this last kind:

‘ ——— Notes with many a winding bout
Of linked sweetness long drawn out.’ *L’ Allegro.*

The following is of the first kind, and imitative seemingly from the effect:

‘ Rose like a steam of rich distill’d perfumes,
And stole upon the air.’

But the noted passage in ‘Twelfth Night,’ which we have always considered as the strongest instance of poetry imitating sound, independent of echoing the meaning, will explain better this imitation from effect:

‘ That strain again ; it had a dying fall :
O, it came o’er my ear like the sweet south,
That breathes upon a bank of violets,
Stealing and giving odour.’

Of the imitation of single sounds, Mr. Twining produces a happy instance from Milton.—‘The Curfew

‘ Over some wide-water’d shore
Swinging slow with sullen roar.’

In his remark on this passage he is perfectly correct: the tone of a swinging bell is very different from that of one struck at rest: it is prolonged, for the bell falls in its return on the clapper, and the result is a duller second sound. This gives the epithet *sullen* much force; but we fear the beauty of the term *swinging*, which our author insists on, must rest on the noise made by the motion, which a person near it can easily distinguish.

The description of mental emotions, which Mr. Twining has explained with much delicacy and address, is wholly connected with the expressions of the passions by motions and gestures. Another mode in which poetry may be styled imitative, and that which Aristotle chiefly means in his Treatise, is the imitation of a series of actions or events, either in tragedy or the epos; but Mr. Twining considers it as most truly imitative in dramatic action. In the two last instances, to say that poetry is an imitative art we must be understood with some latitude, for it is removed another step from imitation, and the expression itself seems improper. In the epic it may be imitative so far as it is descriptive, or mimetic in sound or some accidental coincidence; but, in this view, it has been considered before. The series of events may be related in prose, or by action. In tragedy it is less imitative, unless in the most extended sense, for the imitation is by the dramatic powers of the actor, and the poetry

poetry is no farther imitative than as it echoes the sense, or as it is descriptive of what has happened.

If these then are not imitative poems, poetry is not, in the sense of Aristotle, an imitative art. If there is an error, however, it may be as well attributed to ourselves as to the ancients: they have told us what they called imitations, and we have applied the term to a different species, a closer imitation indeed, but a different one. Mr. Twining next examines what they mean by imitation, and he seems to think that they were unacquainted with the term in the sense in which we use it, because they had neither descriptive poetry, nor landscape painting, till after the establishment of the imperial dignity. We are not prepared to controvert or to support this assertion, which the author endeavours to establish with some care; but various circumstances show, that they were acquainted with words whose sounds imitated the difficulty or ease of the action, the whispering of the trees agitated with a gentle blast, and the soft melodious notes of the nightingale. Of the first a strong instance is in the description of Sisyphus' attempt to roll the stone up the hill, and its subsequent descent—A single word, we believe, in the first line of Theocritus, *Ψιφυρισμα*, is an instance of the second; and a passage quoted from Homer, by our author, with a different view, *Odyss. T. 521.* exemplifies the third.

The author concludes his Dissertation by a few remarks on the origin of the doctrine of poetic imitation. He finds it in Plato, particularly in the Republic, where it seems to degenerate to mimicry; and in Aristotle, where it is almost confined to theatrical representation. The moderns, he supposes, caught the term, and not clearly seeing its object, continued to call poetry an imitative art, in a sense which they themselves affixed. Yet surely the echoing sound is not very different from the imitations mentioned by Plato in the third book of the Republic, p. 396, &c. ed. Serrani, where, in the midst of his censure, he condescends to employ this kind of imitation, though the general scope of his argument undoubtedly leans to acting and reciting. Indeed, as Mr. Twining justly remarks, when books were uncommon, and knowledge was communicated by the ear, imitation of sound was more in the power of the reader, and imitation of action was most probably combined with it.

The second Dissertation is on the different senses of the word Imitative, as applied by the ancients and by the moderns to music. Music is undoubtedly imitative, like poetry, when it condescends (and even Handel has employed it for this purpose) to represent sounds usually applied to particular subjects, and uttered by particular animals. This is the imitation expressly pointed out by Plato in the passage quoted before; but
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it is a kind not adopted by the best masters, or indeed by any composer, except in a popular song. The other kind of imitation, expression, is the chief view in which we may style music imitative, or rather, as our author hazards the expression, which we think a strong and appropriated one, suggestive. In other words, it is in a style suitable to the feelings intended to be excited; and, by leading to the air, disposes the mind to feel with additional force its beauties, or to be raised with increased energy by the prevailing passion. We need not however repeat, after a thousand other authors, that this is effected by the simplest or least complicated harmony; for, if the mind is engaged in following the subject, or distracted by adventitious ornaments, the tide of the feelings is broken, and the effect destroyed. Music then, as imitative, is only so in a general way, raising feelings indeed of a determinate kind, but at the same time appropriated to no peculiar situation, or confined to no particular sentiment. This is generally done by the accompanying words; and Mr. Twining properly considers the imitative power of music as owing to this accompaniment. Yet dramatic music he contends was, especially among the ancients, more strictly imitative:

‘It imitates, not only the *effect* of the words, by exciting correspondent *emotions*, but also the *words* themselves *immediately*, by tones, accents, inflexions, intervals, and rhythmical movements, *similar* to those of speech. That this was peculiarly the character of the *dramatic* music of the ancients, seems highly probable; not only from what is said of it by ancient authors, but from what we know of their music *in general*; of their scales, their *genera*, their fondness for *chromatic* and *enharmonic* intervals, which approach so nearly to those sliding and unassignable inflexions (if I may so speak), that characterize the melody of *speech*.’

Indeed he supposes melody and rhythm, either in speech or music, to be a principle of much greater extent than is imagined; and seems almost inclined to resolve into them the whole power of music over the affections. The allowance would not be very great if we were to agree with him in this opinion; but we could agree only to a certain extent, for melody and rhythm are compatible only to one instrument, or to the voice accompanied, and we are not willing to deny the power of a richer harmony, or of a fuller orchestra, under the regulation of an elegant taste.

Aristotle certainly considers music as imitative to a very great extent; but probably in the same way as poetry, descriptive rather than mimetic, for a change in the melody is attended with a corresponding change in the feelings; but these, as we have

have said before, are general only. The story of Æneas might be played, and affect the different passions in succession as the narrative does; but it will be with general feelings of distress, security, tenderness, or terror. We shall select Aristotle's xxvii. problem, section 19. as amended by our author, with his remarks.

ΔΙΑ ΤΙ ΤΟ ΑΚΟΥΣΤΟ ΜΟΝΟ ΗΘΕΛΕΙ ΤΩΝ ΑΙΣΘΗΤΩΝ, (ΚΑΙ ΓΑΡ ΑΝ Η ΑΙΣΤΗΛΟΓΟ ΜΑΛΛΟΝ ΜΕΙΣ ΕΙΧΕΙ ΗΘΕΛΕΙ) ΑΛΛ' ΕΤΟ ΧΡΕΜΑ, ΕΔΕΙ Η ΟΜΗ, ΕΔΕΙ Ο ΧΥΜΟΣ, ΕΙΧΕΙ; —Η, ΟΤΙ ΚΙΝΗΣΙ ΕΙΧΕΙ ΜΟΝΟΝ; ΕΧ' Η' Ο ΦΟΦΘΗ ΗΜΑΣ ΚΙΝΗΣΙ ΤΟΙΑΥΤΗ ΜΗ ΓΑΡ ΚΑΙ ΤΟΙΣ ΑΛΛΟΙΣ ΨΕΥΔΕΙΣ ΚΙΝΗΣΙ ΓΑΡ ΚΑΙ ΤΟ ΧΡΕΜΑ ΤΗΝ ΨΗΝ ΑΛΛΑ ΤΗΣ ΕΠΟΜΗΣ ΤΩ ΤΟΙΣΤΩ ΦΟΦΘΗ ΑΙΣΘΗΤΟΝ ΚΙΝΗΣΙΣ ΑΥΤΗ ΔΕ ΕΙΧΕΙ ΔΡΑΜΑΤΙΚΑΤΑ [ΤΟΙΣ ΗΘΗΣΙ] † ΕΝ ΤΙ ΤΟΙΣ ΕΙΘΕΛΟΙΣ ΚΑΙ ΕΝ ΤΗ ΤΩΝ ΘΟΥΛΩΝ ΤΑΞΗ ΤΩΝ ΕΙΘΕΛΩΝ ΚΑΙ ΒΑΡΕΩΝ. (ΕΝ ΕΝ ΤΗ ΜΕΣΗ ΑΛΛ' Η ΣΥΜΦΩΝΙΑ ΕΝ ΕΙΧΕΙ ΗΘΕΛΕΙ) ΕΝ ΔΕ ΤΟΙΣ ΑΛΛΟΙΣ ΑΙΣΘΗΤΟΙΣ ΤΑΥΤΟ ΕΝ ΕΙΧΕΙ. ΑΙ ΔΕ ΚΙΝΗΣΙΣ ΑΥΤΑΙΣ ΠΡΑΚΤΙΚΑΙ ΕΙΝΑΙ ΑΙ ΔΕ ΠΡΑΞΕΙΣ ΗΘΕΛΕΙ ΔΡΑΜΑΤΙΚΑ ΕΙΝΑΙ.

“PROBLEM. Why, of all that affects the senses, the AUDIBLE only has any *expression* of the manners; (for melody, even *without words*, has this effect—) but colours, smells, and tastes, have no such property? Is it because the audible alone affects us by *motion*?—I do not mean *that* motion by which as mere *sound* it acts upon the ear; for *such* motion belongs equally to the objects of our *other* senses;—thus, colour acts by motion upon the organs of sight, &c.—But I mean *another* motion which we perceive *subsequent* to that; and *this* motion bears a resemblance to human manners, *both* in the *rhythm*, and in the *arrangement* of sounds acute and grave:—not in their *mixture*; for HARMONY has no *expression*. With the objects of our other senses this is not the case.—Now these motions are analogous to the motion of human *actions*; and those *actions* are the index of the *manners*.”

‘In this problem, the philosopher plainly attributes the *expressive* power of musical sounds to their *succession*—to their *motion* in *measured melody*. He also distinguishes the *rhythmical*, from the *melodious* succession; for he says expressly, that this motion is “*both* in the *rhythm* (or *measure*), and in the *order* or *arrangement* of sounds acute and grave.”—But *whence* the effect of these motions? He answers, from their analogy to the motions of human *actions* †, by which the manners and tempers of men are expressed in common life. With respect to the analogy

* The text here, in the ed. of Duval, stands thus:—κίνησις εἶχει μίμνησιν ἐν ἡρώδῃ—of which no sense can be made. The emendation appeared to me obvious and certain.

† I insert—*ταῖς ἡθέραις*—as plainly required by the sense of the passage, and fully warranted by Aristotle's repeated expressions of the same kind.—I found no other corrections necessary.

‡ The original is short, and rather obscure. It says, *literally*, “these motions are *practical motions* :” *πρακτικαὶ εἰναι*. But that I have given Aristotle's true meaning in my translation, is evident from a clearer expression in Prob. xxix. which is a shorter solution of the same question. His expression there is—*κίνησις εἶναι* [i. ἢ ῥυθμοὶ καὶ τὰ μᾶλλον] ὡς περ καὶ αἱ πράξεις.—“Rhythm and melody are motions, “as actions also are.”

of *rhythmic* movement to the various motions of men in action, this, indeed, is sufficiently obvious. But Aristotle goes farther, and supposes that there is also such analogy in the motion of melody considered merely as a succession of different *tones*, without any regard to *time*; *ἡ τῶν φωνῶν τάξις, τῶν ὁμοίων καὶ βαρύν.* He plainly asserts, that this succession of *tones*, also, is analogous to the motion of human *actions*.—Now it seems impossible to assign any human action to which a succession of *sounds* and *intervals*, merely as such, has, or can have, any relation or similitude, except the *action* (if the expression is allowable), of *speaking*, which is such a succession. If this be Aristotle's meaning—and I confess myself unable to discover any other—I do not see how we can avoid concluding, that he agreed so far with Plato, as to attribute *part*, at least, of the effect of music upon the affections to the analogy between melody and speech.

It must be added from our author, that in the *Treatise on Music and Poetry*, Aristotle confines the imitative powers of music to that only of the flute or of the lyre, though we suspect it should have been translated, the poetry adapted to the flute or lyre.—But we must not anticipate the subject of our next Article.

[To be continued.]

A Narrative of the Military Operations on the Coromandel Coast, against the combined Forces of the French, Dutch, and Hyder Ally Cawn, from the Year 1780, to the Peace in 1784; in a Series of Letters. By James Munro, Esq. 4to. 18 16. Nicol.

WE shall give some account of the contents of this work, without attending to the disputes which we have observed to have been carried on respecting the charge of plagiarism, and the accusation that the author, or editor, had copied from a work which we reviewed in our LXVth volume, p. 119. the 'Memoirs of the late War in Asia,' and the 'Travels in Europe, Asia, and Africa,' examined in our LIIIrd vol. p. 337. We mean not to insinuate that we do not think it our duty to detect the copist, or to distinguish him from the original observer; but it would be superfluous to enlarge on what has been clearly pointed out. It is now well known, that much of the miscellaneous matter is very similar to what occurs in the latter work, and the *Military Operations* seem to be in part copied from the former. We shall chiefly enlarge on what appears to be new. Mr. Munro went, in 1779, with the 73d regiment to India. The first object was the attack of Goree, which was summoned in form, after it had been abandoned by the French troops. The description of Madeira is animated and characteristic. Mr. Munro's professing to give only an account of the most striking objects, and his having in general executed his design

design with spirit, renders his work very interesting; for unfortunately travellers have rather chosen to enumerate the number of churches, and of inhabitants in any place, than to copy the impressions which they felt when they first saw it. The description of the capital of Madeira, and of Cape Town, are of this kind, but much of the other descriptions have occurred in different works.

When Mr. Munro arrived at Madras, he found the surf not so violent, and the barracks not so magnificent as had been represented. He describes the customs of the inhabitants, and the impositions of the natives. The various animals and reptiles, which the heat raises to their most dangerous perfection, are also shortly mentioned. Many parts of the following description of the snakes are, we believe, not generally known:

‘Snakes of various kinds are so numerous here, that this may justly be called the country of serpents. The sting of some of them is reckoned very dangerous, if not deadly; while others are so docile, that the country people catching them when young, and pulling out their teeth and stings, render them perfectly domestic, teaching them to dance and leap in a familiar manner to the music of a rustic pipe or violin. It is truly surprising to behold how charmed these creatures are with the sound of any instrument, but particularly the bagpipe, raising their heads with seeming joy, and moving their bodies in concord with the musical notes. As the time quickens, they appear more and more delighted; and at last get into such an ecstasy, that you see them extend their beautiful bells, and quicken the motion of their heads, whilst their eyes sparkle with increased lustre. Those gentlemen, whose residence was next to the 73d regiment, used often to allege, in a jocular manner, that our bagpiper drew every snake in the country to his neighbourhood by the charms of his music; which was certainly the case, for he has often discovered them dancing round his feet, whilst he entertained the soldiers with a few Highland reels. The bagpipe appears also to be a favourite instrument amongst the natives. They have no taste indeed for any other kind of music, and they would much rather listen to this instrument a whole day than to an organ for ten minutes.

‘The most dangerous of these reptiles are the coverymanil and the green snake. The first is a beautiful little creature, very lively, and about six or seven inches long. It creeps into all private corners of houses, and is often found coiled up betwixt the sheets, or perhaps under the pillow, of one's bed. Its sting is said to inflict immediate death; though I must confess, for my own part, that I never heard of any dangerous accident occasioned by it. The green snake is generally discovered winding round some branch of a tree: and it is said to have such power of attraction from its beautiful colour, that, when once the eye is fixed upon it, it cannot be withdrawn up-

til the snake darts at the eye-ball, and scoops it fairly from the socket. It is also said to attract birds in the same manner. But these assertions have too much the air of fable to merit an implicit belief. Many very large snakes are also found in the fields of six or eight feet long; but the largest of these reptiles that I ever beheld was at the Cape of Good Hope; it was at least sixteen or seventeen feet in length, and two in circumference. When at first surprised, he reared his head from the ground full five feet high, and instantly made off quicker than I could follow; sometimes creeping, and at other times vaulting three or four feet at a time. One fortunate circumstance respecting these animals is, that they never offer violence unless provoked.'

Various other circumstances, which seem to have attracted our author's attention, have, we remember, been already mentioned, in different volumes. That the Malabars are a different tribe from the Gentoos, is not so well understood: we suspect the author means the Malays, who are generally supposed to be the original inhabitants of the islands of the Indian Ocean; but these, though 'they speak quite a distinct language' from the Gentoos, are not, we apprehend, subject to the Bramins. The indolence of the natives, particularly the women, is strongly described; and it is with great propriety that Mr. Munro proposes a tax on the mulattos, so frequently imported from the East, the degenerate race from the European and Gentoos. The pride and extravagance of the European ladies in India is also mentioned with a proper disapprobation:

'One day, as I walked upon the esplanade of Fort St. George, a curiosity which I had long entertained was gratified by a sight of Mahomed Ally Cawn, nabob of Arcot, going from his town residence to his country palace, called Chepauk-house, upon Choultry plain, a place much resembling a state prison. The style and appearance of his suite and equipage did not strike me with that resplendent light in which I had been taught to consider an Indian nabob. The old gentleman's hoary beard and pensive mien bespoke him a prince of a dejected and oppressed mind; for while he passed the newly-arrived Europeans he cast on them such a glance of majesty, blended with sorrow, as one could not behold without compassion and respect. The expression in his countenance seemed to say—'Can you who are as yet unpolluted, and strangers to the depravity of your countrymen in this part of the world, can you give any consolation to, or assuage the pangs of, an afflicted prince, who groans under an insupportable load of oppression, imposed upon him by the artifice of simulative friendship?' His highness was accompanied by two of his sons, the elder of whom seemed perfectly resigned to wear the chains of an usurped

ed despotism, when Providence should think proper to relieve his father from the bondage; but the second, named Aumier, bore the air of one who was impatient to avenge the indignities imposed upon his ancestors.'

The heat of the sun is described as violently oppressive; and the suffocating land-winds are not inferior in their dryness to the celebrated harmattan. They generally come in the whirling form of tornadoes.

The History of the Maratta war does not appear to be well connected with the other letters, of which this work consists: it is evidently a separate part, not skilfully united with the rest; and the numerous insinuations, as well as the more pointed personal attacks, render it a very suspicious compilation. In the campaign of 1780, Hyder Ally, bursting through the ghauts, the only passes by which the mountains can be crossed, overwhelmed the Carnatic, and skirmished even under the walls of Madras. The English council did not suspect this attack, and the army was divided. The troops which could be collected were immediately sent to Congeveram, at the nabob's instigation, whose capital was pressed on, and hourly in the greatest danger. Lieut. col. Baillie, in joining it from another quarter, was cut off. The different movements are described by Mr. Munro with much clearness, and illustrated by an accurate plan. The scene must have been dreadful; but the description seems to contain a little poetical prose, where the eye in a fine phrenzy rolling, endeavours to catch a glimpse of what could never be seen:

'To behold formidable and impenetrable bodies of horse, of infantry, and of artillery, advancing from all quarters, flashing savage fury, levelling the numberless instruments of slaughter, and darting destruction around, was a scene to appal even something more than the strongest human resolution; but it was beheld by this little band with the most undaunted and immoveable firmness. Distinct bodies of horse came on successively to the charge, with strong parties of infantry placed in the intervals, whose fire was discharged in showers; but the deliberate and well levelled platoons of the British musquetry had such a powerful effect as to repulse several different attacks. Like the swelling waves of the ocean, however, when agitated by a storm, fresh columns incessantly poured in upon them with redoubled fury, which at length brought so many to the ground, and weakened their fire so considerably, that they were unable longer to withstand the dreadful and tremendous shock; and the field soon presented a picture of the most inhuman cruelties and unexampled carnage.

'The last and awful struggle was marked by the clashing of arms

arms and shields, the snorting and kicking of horses, the snapping of spears, the glistening of bloody swords, oaths and imprecations; concluding with the groans and cries of bruised and mutilated men, wounded horses tumbling to the ground upon expiring soldiers, and the hideous roaring of elephants stalking to and fro, and wielding their dreadful chains alike amongst friends and foes. Such as were saved from the immediate stroke of death were so crowded together that it was with difficulty they could stand: several were in a state of suffocation; while others, from the weight of the dead bodies that had fallen upon them, were fixed to the spot, at the mercy of a furious foe.

Our author traces the source of these calamities to the inexperience of the council, by whom military affairs were directed, whose eagerness was increased by the representations of the nabob, and to the divided, as well as unprepared state of the army. He then traces the army to their former quarters, in which they covered Madras, and gives an account of an Indian camp and an Indian march, where luxuries and impediments (the impedimenta of the Romans) of every kind prevail. The luxuries are in part owing to the necessities of the climate, and partly to the habits of the natives, which also occasion the delay, and the difficulties in case of emergencies: we hope only that the knavery and impositions of contractors and persons in office are exaggerated. After the army's return, sir Eyre Coote was sent from Bengal to command it:

The appearance of this officer is indeed highly pleasing and respectable. Though much emaciated by a long residence in this enervating climate, he yet bears the air of a hardy veteran; and, though at the age of sixty-three, cheerfully submits to the unremitting duties and trying hardships of the field. He is also renowned for an intrepid spirit and judicious conduct; which, together with a fascinating mien and an outward affectation of countenancing the sepoys, are said to have given him a great ascendancy over the black troops; an important accomplishment, not easily to be attained by commanders in this country. This last indeed is the chief cause assigned for sending general Coote to command at this critical period upon the Coromandel coast.

The army, which sir Eyre Coote's popularity and address collected, shows that some of Mr. Munro's former representations were exaggerated. In reality, we see too great a tendency in this gentleman, probably from the complexion of his information, to detract from the merits of the company, and of many of the former commanders. Sir Eyre Coote, however, began the campaign with 7400 effective men; and the first exploit was storming the fort of Carangooly, which, in spite

spite of many different obstacles, was taken by captain Davies: it was succeeded by relieving Vandewash, which was defended with singular skill and ability by lieutenant Flint. After this attempt the army advanced, and by forced marches gained Cuddalore, and offered Hyder Ally battle, in circumstances which, if our author's representation were admitted, no general could have accepted it: indeed he seems to consider this offer as little more than splendid boasting, and tells us that, if the French fleet, which then appeared off the coast, had persisted in their hostile attempts, the army must have laid down their arms: had they even cruised off Cuddalore for the space of one week, the same event must, he thinks, have happened. The battle of Porto Novo however followed, where the defeat of Hyder Ally was complete; but sir Hector Munro, not sir Eyre Coote, is our author's hero on this occasion, as well as in the battle of Pollilore, fought on the spot where lieutenant-colonel Bailie was defeated. Accurate plans of both are subjoined.

Notwithstanding these victories, which partiality alone, and the retreats of Hyder would perhaps style so, the hero of the Misore again prepared to dispute the relief of Vellore and the siege of Arcot. The action of Sholangur followed, in which Hyder was again defeated; but sir Eyre Coote, as usual, could make no great advantage of it, since, as in similar circumstances, he was obliged after the victory to fall back on Madras for a supply of provisions. At this time, however, Madras itself was in little better circumstances; and the British army wandered through the pollams (highlands), under the auspices of a friendly rajah, where they found, if not a scanty, a precarious supply. In this retreat they were molested by a plundering party of Misorian horse, which sir Eyre Coote, with much skill, surprised and captured; and colonel Owen, who was detached to the relief of Vellore, was opposed by the whole of Hyder's army, which he eluded, and again joined the general. Money and provisions were at last obtained, and Vellore was relieved before the face of Hyder.

Lord Macartney, who had come out some time before these last events, with the account of the Dutch war, now proceeded in his hostilities against that nation. Negapatnam and Trincomallee soon surrendered; the first of which is the key to the Tanjore country, and contributed to bring about a reconciliation with the Poligars of Marawa and Tinavelly; the second, a valuable harbour, the only retreat of shipping during the monsoon season on that side of the peninsula. After the relief of Vellore, where a singular mode of defence is adopted by filling the moat with alligators, who may, however, be terrified by noise. Chittore was captured and recaptured; Trippasore was threat-

opened and again left. Nothing of more importance was done; and on the second of December both armies went into winter quarters.

The commencement of the year 1782 was prosperous. Vellore was again relieved, notwithstanding the efforts of Hyder, who was not however willing to risk a general engagement for that purpose. The two years siege of Tillicherry, on the Malabar coast, was raised, and the garrison of Calicut, on the same coast, surrendered to col. Humberston Mackenzie, who disembarked the reinforcements from England at that place, not only that they might not be captured by the French, who had at this time the command of the sea, but that he might make some effectual diversion to relieve the southern army. Colonel Fullarton, with commodore Alms, and a considerable force, joined sir Edward Hughes at Trinquammallee.

The naval actions at this time occurred; but these, with their different events, are well known. The French landed their troops after some difficulty; and M. Lally entered the Tanjore country, with Tippoo Sahib, and captured colonel Brathwaite and his army, after an obstinate and bloody battle. Cuddalore also capitulated to Tippoo Sahib and his new reinforcements. Paramacoll surrendered to Hyder.

Sir Eyre Coote at last marched, and by successively threatening Chitaput and Arné, endeavoured to separate the allies. The movement to Arné, where Hyder's treasures lay, drew the Misorian to its defence, where our troops gained another barren unproductive victory. The army fell back for provisions, losing, through the address and skill of Hyder, one regiment of black cavalry, two guns, and a hundred infantry, the grand guard of the army. The siege of Negapatnam, which was relieved by sir Edward Hughes, the severe but indecisive naval actions of July and August, and the loss of Trinquammallee follow: an excellent plan of the harbour and forts of Trinquammallee is annexed. The peace with the Marrattas soon ensued, and gave a prospect, though a distant one, of relief: some attempts were made to approach Cuddalore; but the progress was prevented by the failure of the supply. Rice soon became scarce at Madras, and a dreadful famine ensued. Col. Humberston endeavoured to draw Hyder's attention from the Carnatic, beat the troops opposed to him, took the fort of Trincolore, and marched to Calicut. He even attempted to penetrate into the Misore country, but was prevented by the appearance of Tippoo Sahib; and, when reinforced by the second battalion of the 42d regiment, completely defeated the son of Hyder. The death of this subtle and politic prince occurred at the end of the year 1782, and the army went into winter quarters.

Our interests gained little advantage from the death of Hyder, except that the report prevented Suffrein from attacking Ganjam, and our other northern settlements, during the absence of sir Edward Hughes and sir Richard Bickerton, who had now joined him from England. Tippoo, however, having assured the French admiral of his attachment, Cuddalore was re victualled, and preparations made for an active campaign. The first attempt was to demolish the forts of Vandewash and Carangooly, which had so often delayed the operations of the army, by the care and protection they required. Vellore was again re victualled; and great assistance was expected from an event which proved to be a source of the severest misfortunes. Hayet Saib was an illegitimate son of Hyder, and was discontented with the distribution of his father's vast acquisitions. The presidency of Bombay endeavoured to take advantage of these circumstances, and sent general Mathews with a suitable force for that purpose. The general reduced some very important fortresses, and was in possession of Hyder-nagur, the metropolis of Beddinore, when Tippoo suddenly left the Carnatic to oppose him, having previously blown up all the garrisons except that of Arné. Beddinore was soon attacked by the Misorian chief; and general Mathews' conduct, which is represented to have been, in the extreme, rapacious and unjust, was now timid and indecisive. He capitulated on the most solemn engagements, which were disregarded, and the event is well known: Tippoo was resolved to escape from such a formidable opponent at any rate.

Col. Fullarton, with the southern army, and general Jones, with the northern, advanced on the Misore territories, and were for a time successful; but different circumstances obliged them to desist. General Stuart, on whom the command of the main army devolved, took possession of the ruins of Arcot and other fortresses, in form, and then turned his attention to Cuddalore. This place was garrisoned with Europeans, in a larger proportion than are usually found in the plains or fortresses of India, and with a numerous body of sepoy, in the whole nearly equalling in numbers the besieging army, which amounted to about 11000 men. A severe action before the fortress ensued, in which the British lost the greater number of men, but claimed the victory, from having driven the French into the citadel. A siege ensued, in which sir Edward Hughes, with the fleet, for a time co-operated; but he was blown off the coast, and Suffrein seized his station, which the British admiral could not again recover. In this situation, with a superior foe in the garrison, and the whole force of the French fleet on the other side, the besiegers were threatened with a formidable attack, when the

the news of peace, fortunately it seems for our troops, stopped the blow. A severe naval action, however, occurred before Cuddalore; and, as we have not hitherto stopped our narrative to mention the particulars of the contests at sea, we shall add our author's reflections on the general conduct of sir Edward Hughes.

'The disadvantages under which sir Edward Hughes laboured in the prosecution of the war, may be easily seen by any person who will take the trouble of investigating them. He gallantly fought, without an ally, or scarcely any other resource but what his own ingenuity furnished, against the most expert admiral of France, who was liberally supported by the Dutch and Hyder Ally; and engaged in a cause so desperate, that he had nothing to lose but his ships and men, and with the latter he was regularly and plentifully reinforced from the Isle of France. On the other hand, sir Edward Hughes had a most extensive territory to protect in every quarter of India, with a great inferiority of ships, and a still greater of seamen, his fleet never having been furnished with a single seaman from Britain, excepting those pressed from the outward bound East Indiamen, the number of which was so very inadequate for the supply of his losses by sickness and battle, that, during a great part of the war, but particularly in the last engagement, sir Edward was obliged to substitute wretched lascars for British sailors, who formed at least a fourth part of his complement. Though labouring under such evident disadvantages, he not only maintained his ground but boldly fought his foes, and gave them such repeated discomfitures that nothing important could be effected by their land forces. No less than seven sea captains were sent in extreme disgrace to France by the gallant Suffrein, (some of whom, it is said, are still in the Basile) on account of their misconduct.'

Tippoo Sahib was now the only enemy; and the subsequent events, of which the principal are the taking of Poligatcherry by colonel Fullarton in the south, and of Mangalore by Tippoo, are of little importance. We dare not follow our author in his narrative of the disputes of general Stuart and sir John Burgoyne, with the governor and council of Madras, for, through the whole volume, no little bias against the company is conspicuous. The peace was concluded with Tippoo sultan in March 1784; and the remainder of the letter contains a melancholy description of the treatment of the prisoners taken by the king of Misore, and complaints against the conduct of the East India company, the justice of which we cannot ascertain. The last letter contains a good description of the Isle of France, which our author thinks might have been easily and advantageously subdued at the beginning of the war.

The Narrative before us we have shortly abridged, because it

it is the most full and complete account of the war in India, that we have seen. We are sorry that we cannot praise it for its impartiality. The author seems to have adopted the prejudices and antipathies of those with whom he conversed, and from whom he copied. We perceive, in more than one instance, that praise is cautiously suppressed, and we have been informed, that the disputes and errors of the council have been greatly exaggerated. Even in the field, as we have hinted, Mr. Munro has his heroes whom he raises, and others whom he depresses; but the period of party must pass away before we have an history of the war, not only full and complete, but well digested also and impartial. Our author's language is on the whole correct, animated, and clear; his plans are valuable, and his representation of Port Louis, in the island of Mauritius, picturesque and pleasing; we could have wished that he had added a map of the peninsula, for we could not always follow his description, without the chart of major Rennel.

The Botanic Garden. Part II. Containing The Loves of the Plants, a Poem, with Philosophical Notes. Volume the Second. 4to. 12s. in Boards. Johnson.

EVERY pastoral writer has diversified his fields with the daisy and violet; has adorned his rustic cottages with jasmine and woodbine, or blended in his landscape the varied hues of the ash and the beech, the chestnut and the oak. It was reserved for our author to describe, in elegant and flowing language, the minutest parts and more philosophical distinctions of botany, and even to adorn his poems with characteristic descriptions, which, in the uncouth language of Linnaeus, are harsh and unpleasant. The sexual system has afforded him the hint, which he has expanded with genius and diligence: each plant has its loves; each stamen is a husband; each pistil a wife; and each flower a house. From the peculiarities of different flowers, therefore, arise the various descriptions in this volume, whose elegant and finished poetry is only equalled by the accuracy of the botanical observations. One inconvenience has, however, arisen from the author having chosen the most curious peculiarities, and from the little unavoidable obscurity of poetical language. When we read the poem, almost the whole, even to a botanist, is at first enigmatical, and to the less learned reader, appears to be a string of riddles, whose solution is to be found in the notes. But we can venture to assure the reader, that if the perusal be at first attended with a little difficulty, he will be amply repaid by the pleasure which he will reap from his future examinations; and

and if, from this poem he attends only to some of the common flowers of a common garden, his views of nature will be greatly extended, many cheerless moments will be filled with the most rational entertainment, and what at first began in amusement, may terminate in scientific acquisition. Our author is no common guide in this respect, and his notes contain a more judicious selection, and a better connected view of the arguments in favour of the sexual system, than any *one* work that we have yet seen. The œconomy of vegetation, and the physiology of plants, form the first volume; but this didactic poem is deferred till another year, to afford time for the repetition of some experiments.

In the preface an outline of the sexual system, so far as it may enable the reader to understand the descriptions, is given; and in the poem, written in a whimsical style, is a good contrast between the Loves of the Plants and the Metamorphoses of Ovid. The Roman poet transmuted men, women, and even gods and goddesses into trees and flowers; our author has 'undertaken, by a similar art, to restore some of them to their original animality.' They are, he says, like little 'pictures, suspended over the chimney of a lady's dressing-room, *connected only by a slight festoon of ribbands,*' which may amuse; though we are not acquainted with the originals. But we must now turn to the poem.

The introduction is singularly happy, and truly correct, except in one single instance, which we have marked. The *glittering* of the glow-worm is, we believe, only conspicuous in its exertions, and he is here directed to be still and attentive, when he probably would not glitter. In the subsequent lines, indeed, the spider is told to descend, and the snail to slide; but these are brought from a distance. — Suppose he had said:

'Come glittering glow-worms from your mossy beds.'

We should however have transcribed the lines before we had the presumption to have endeavoured to amend them:

'Descend, ye hovering Sylphs! ærial Quires,
And sweep with little hands your silver lyres;
With fairy foot-steps print your grassy rings,
Ye Gnomes! accordant to the tinkling strings;
While in soft notes I tune to oaten reed
Gay hopes, and amorous sorrows of the mead:—
From giant Oaks, that wave their branches dark,
To the dwarf Moss, that clings upon their bark,
What Beaux and Beauties croud the gaudy groves,
And woo and win their vegetable Loves.
How Snow-drops cold, and blue-eyed Harebells blend
Their tender tears, as o'er the stream they bend;

The

The love-sick Violet, and the Primrose pale
Bow their sweet heads, and whisper to the gale;
With secret sighs the Virgin Lily droops,
And jealous Cowslips hang their tawny cups.
How the young Rose in beauty's damask pride
Drinks the warm blushes of his bashful bride;
With honey'd lips enamour'd Woodbines meet,
Clasp with fond arms, and mix their kisses sweet.—

'Stay thy soft-murmuring waters, gentle Rill;
Hush, whispering Winds, ye rustling Leaves, be still;
Rest, silver Butterflies, your quivering wings;
Alight, ye Beetles, from your airy rings;
Ye painted Moths, your gold-eyed plumage furl,
Bow your wide horns, your spiral trunks uncurl;
Glitter, ye Glow-worms, on your mossy beds;
Descend, ye Spiders, on your lengthen'd threads;
Slide here, ye horned Snails, with varnish'd shells;
Ye Bee-nymphs, listen in your waxy cells!'

The peculiarities of this poem consist not only in the easy and often elegant style in which the different descriptions are conveyed, but in the vast variety of uncommon facts introduced, and the address with which the different ornaments (the adventitious descriptions) are conducted. It is by this clue that we shall be led in our choice of extracts, for it is not easy to give, in a short compass, an adequate idea of this beautiful poem, unless we follow some general plan, since the author seems not to have adopted any particular, at least any apparent design. The lychnis is a common plant in our hedges, and of no extraordinary beauty; yet it is extremely beautiful in our author's hands:

'Five sister-nymphs to join Diana's train
With thee, fair LYCHNIS *! vow,—but vow in vain;
Beneath one roof resides the virgin band,
Flies the fond swain, and scorns his offer'd hand;
But when soft hours on breezy pinions move,
And smiling May attunes her lute to love,
Each wanton beauty, trick'd in all her grace,
Shakes the bright dew-drops from her blushing face;
In gay undress displays her rival charms,
And calls her wondering lovers to her arms.'

The sun-flower, for instance, we all have seen; though we never saw it in greater perfection than in our author's description:

* * Ten males and five females. The flowers, which contain the five females, and those which contain the ten males, are found on different plants; and often at a great distance from each other. Five of the ten males arrive at their maturity some days before the other five, as may be seen by opening the corol before it naturally expands itself. When the females arrive at their maturity, they rise above the petals, as if looking abroad for their distant husbands, the scarlet ones contribute much to the beauty of our meadows in May and June.'

'Great

‘ Great **HELIANTHUS** * guides o’er twilight plains
In gay solemnity his Dervice-trains:
Marsh’d in ~~sons~~ each gaudy band proceeds,
Each gaudy band a plumed Lady leads †;
With zealous step he climbs the upland lawn,
And bows a homage to the rising dawn;
Imbibes with eagle-eye the golden ray,
And watches, as it moves, the orb of day.’

Once more; the honeysuckle:

‘ Fair **LONCERA** ‡ creeds the dewy lawn,
And decks with brighter blush the vermil dawn;
Winds round the shadowy rocks, and panted vales,
And scents with sweeter breath the summer gales;
With artless grace and native ease she charms,
And bears the Horn of Plenty in her arms.
Five rival Swains their tender cares unfold,
And watch with eye aistance the transfused gold.’

We have found no little difficulty in selecting a passage which will give a proper idea of our author’s interesting digressions, not because any were exceptionable, but because they were in general too long. The following, after some care, we have preferred: the lines are beautiful; and the transition is not obvious or expected. There are however some others, that are too extensive, which we think more wildly poetical, and more strikingly picturesque:

‘ Where vast Ontario rolls his brineless tides,
And feeds the trackless forests on his sides,
Fair **CASSIA** § trembling hears the howling woods,
And trusts her sawny children to the floods.—

Cinctured

* • Sun-flower. The numerous florets, which constitute the disk of this flower, contain in each five males surrounding one female, the five stamens have their anthers connected at top, whence the name of the class “confederate males.” The sun-flower follows the course of the sun by nutation, not by twisting its stem. (Hales Veg. Stat.) Other plants, when they are confined in a room, turn the shining surface of their leaves, and bend their whole branches to the light. See *Mimosa*.

† The seeds of many plants of this class are furnished with a plume, by which admirable mechanism they are disseminated by the winds far from their parent stem, and look like a shuttlecock, as they fly.

‡ *Caprifoliæ*. Honeysuckle. Five males, one female. Nature has in many flowers used a wonderful apparatus to guard the nectary, or honey-gland, from insects. In the honeysuckle the petal terminates in a long tube like a cornucopia, or horn of plenty; and the honey is produced at the bottom of it.

§ Five males, one female. The seeds are black, the stamens gold-colour. This is one of the American fruits, which are usually thrown on the coasts of Norway; and are frequently in so recent a state as to vegetate, when properly taken care of, the fruit of the *anacardium*, cashew-nut; of *cucurbita lagenaria*, bottle-gourd; of the *mimosa scandens*, co-

coones;

Cinctured with gold while *ten* fond brothers stand,
 And guard the beauty on her native land,
 Soft breathes the gale, the current gently moves,
 And bears to Norway's coasts her infant-*loves*.
 —So the sad mother at the noon of night
 From bloody Memphis stole her silent flight;
 Wrap'd her dear babe beneath her folded vest,
 And clasp'd the treasure to her throbbing breast,
 With soothing whispers hushed its feeble cry,
 Pressed the soft kiss, and breathed the secret sigh.—
 —With dauntless step she seeks the winding shore,
 Hears unappall'd the glimmering torrents roar;
 With Paper-flags a floating cradle weaves,
 And hides the smiling boy in Lotus-leaves;
 Gives her white bosom to his eager lips,
 The salt tears mingling with the milk he sips;
 Waits on the reed-crown'd brink with pious guile,
 And trusts the scaly monsters of the Nile.—
 —Erewhile majestic from his lone abode,
 Ambassador of Heaven, the Prophet trod;
 Wrench'd the red Scourge from proud Oppression's
 hands,
 And broke, curst Slavery! thy iron bands.'

The following, our last extract, is exquisitely beautiful; and we have selected it not only on account of the admirable description; but to say, that the chundali borrum is beautiful only by our author's dressing it. It is a papilionaceous flower of a yellow dusky hue:

' When from his golden urn the Solstice pours
 O'er Afric's sable sons the sultry hours;
 When not a gate flits o'er her tawny hills,
 Save where the dry Harmattan breathes and kills;
 When stretch'd in dust her gasping panthers lie,
 And writh'd in foamy folds her serpents die;
 Indignant Atlas mourns his leafless woods,
 And Gambia trembles for his sinking floods;
 Contagion stalks along the briny sand,
 And Ocean rolls his sickening shoals to land.
 —Fair CHUNDA* smiles amid the burning waste,
 Her brow unturban'd, and her zone unbrac'd;

The

coons; of the *piscidia erythrina*, logwood-tree, and cocoa-nuts are enumerated by Dr. Tonning. (*Amzn. acad.* 149) amongst these emigrant seeds. The fact is truly wonderful, and cannot be accounted for but by the existence of under currents in the depths of the ocean; or from vortexes of water passing from one country to another through caverns of the earth.

* Chundali Borrum is the name, which the natives give to this plant; it is the *Hedyсарum movens*, or moving plant; its class is two brotherhoods

Ten brother-youths with light umbrella's shade;
 Or fan with busy hands the panting maid;
 Loose wave her locks, disclosing, as they break,
 The rising bosom and averted cheek;
 Clasp'd round her ivory neck with studs of gold
 Flows her thin vest in many a silky fold;
 O'er her light limbs the dim transparence plays,
 And the fair form, it seems to hide, betrays.'

There are some parts of this volume which we have not mentioned: they are styled Interludes, and consist of Dialogues between the Author and his Bookseller. Fielding has already told us, that booksellers are not the worst judges of literary merit, and our author's friend seems very sagacious and penetrating. The author forgot to tell us whether the scene is laid at Litchfield or in London.

In the first Interlude, the author informs us that he is a flower-painter, or occasionally attempts a landscape, leaving the human figure, with the portraits of history, to abler artists. He proceeds to instruct his bookseller in the difference between poetry and prose; but he falls into one little error. It is not sublimity, he says, which constitutes poetry, for sublime sentiments are often better in prose. He instances the dying scene of Warwick, where he observes, that no measure of verse could add to the sentiment. Unfortunately, the whole scene is in blank verse, and his quotation, 'Oh! could you *but* fly,' is erroneous. In Read's edition, vol. VI. p. 563, it is:

————— Ah could you fly.
War. Why then I would not fly.—————

The measure is more strictly observed, and more poetical images occur in this scene, than in many of a greater extent in Shakespeare.

We are not clear that the author is perfectly accurate when he says, that poetry is distinguished from prose by admitting very few words of perfectly abstract ideas, for Pope's Essay on Man is, we think, poetical, though few ideas, except abstract ones, are admitted. He is however probably near the truth; and his illustrations are in general very just. His criticism on sir Joshua Reynolds' Discourse, delivered in 1786, where he asserts, that 'the higher styles of painting, like the higher styles of the drama, do not aim at any thing like deception,' is very

hoods ten males. Its leaves are continually in spontaneous motion, some rising and others falling, and others whirling circularly by twisting their stems; this spontaneous movement of the leaves, when the air is quite still, and very warm, seems to be necessary to the plant, as perpetual respiration is to animal life.'

accurate;

accurate; and he might have instanced an example of worse taste than the president accuses Fielding of, in the introduction of the figures in the back-ground of Mrs. Siddons' admirable portrait. If it be alledged that he represents an ideal rather than a real personage, the tragic Muse, the fault is equally glaring, in choosing features which we know to be those of an individual.

In the second Interlude is a very correct and philosophical discrimination between what is merely tragic, and what is horrid. The third interlude contains some remarks on the relations between poetry, painting, and music, in which the author displays an accurate taste, and no inconsiderable knowledge of these different subjects. In one or two points our opinions may differ; but, on these doubtful subjects, we mean not to insinuate that the author is wrong, or that we are right.

On the whole, we have perused this volume with great pleasure, where novelty of subject is united with animated poetry, and an intimate acquaintance with botany, natural history, and various collateral subjects. Though we have transcribed much, if our readers have any taste, they will turn to the work; for we have never met with any performance where it was so difficult to convey, within the compass of an article, a proper view of its contents and its merits.

The Mine: a Dramatic Poem. The Second Edition. To which are added, Two Historic Odes. By J. Sargent, Esq. Small 8vo. 5s. sewed. Cadell.

IF the various beauties of the vegetable world have drawn forth the powers of the first and greatest poets, the mineral kingdom has lately been described with great force, and adorned with most animated and energetic strains. It was a first attempt, and it succeeded so well that it seems to have repressed every imitator; yet much remains unsung: the visions of the alchemist; the different kinds of air; the peculiarities of the phosphorus; the heat of mineral springs, from the gradual decomposition of pyrites; and, above all, the future uses of each stone and ore would furnish a great variety of spirited description, and give full scope to the poet's fancy. We gave a pretty full account of the first edition of this elegant poem in our LIXth volume, page 261. and we shall not now add any thing, except that it seems to be reprinted with a few additions to the notes, and a few inconsiderable alterations in the lyrical parts.

The two Historical Odes are not, we think, of equal merit. The Vision of Stonehenge, which we should not have expected from the author of the *Mine*, is weak and spiritless. Our author's

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thor's phosphorus blazes only in the shades of night. The Vision, supposed to have appeared to the unfortunate Mary in her voyage from France to Scotland, is greatly superior. The Spirit of the Isles, from Orkney, appears, and foretells her future woes, with the different events of the reigns of her successors, James, the two Charles's, the second James, Mary, and Anne. The spirit is described with much poetical fire, though a little different from what historical fact relates, for we are told that the first night which Mary passed on the sea was exceedingly calm, so that she was not the next morning out of sight of the French coast; yet this is the time of the vision! Let us, however, introduce the Genius of the Isles:

‘ From Orkney’s stormy steep
The Spirit of the Isles infuriate came,
Round him flash’d the arctic flame;
His dark cloud shadow’d the contentious deep:
Thrice with a *whirlwind’s ample breath*
He blew the pealing trump of death;
While ghostly legions, fleeing by,
Swell’d with terrific scream his dreary cry.’

The following stanzas, which relate to David Rizzio and Bothwell, are exceedingly picturesque and animated:

“ What sadly-soothing strain,
What mournful melody hath caught mine ear?
Ah! no more the notes I hear—
The lessening cadence dies along the plain;
Sweet minstrel, whose enchanting art
In ecstacy can lap the heart;
Why hath thy muse advent’rous stray’d
From Doria’s stream and Susa’s warbling shade?
In clattering hawberk clad, thro’ night’s still gloom,
Stern Ruthven fiercely stalks with haggard mien;
With thundering tone proclaims the victim’s doom,
And tears her minion from a doating queen:
Thro’ the arch’d courts, and storied chambers high,
Loud shrieks of terror ring, and death’s expiring cry.

“ Bid the deep tempest roar,
And overwhelm a baleful crew;
Proud lord of Inis-tore!
Be thine, thy guilt to rue—
Pent in the dungeon’s dark and stony womb,
O’er thee be rais’d a living tomb;
Grim fiends and spectres dire
Hover round thy coward head,
And swart Melancholy shed
Her chilling dews that quench th’ ethereal fire;

For

For lo! yon form, that rides the storm,
Traitor, 'tis thy murder'd king!
He joins the hosts, of monarch ghosts;
Of the days of old they sing—
With sounds of loud lament they hail
His sanguine shade, that fires the misty air;
Sublime they float, and o'er the mountains bare
In majesty of midnight sail:

- Down heav'n's broad steep descend in dread array,
And in the shadowy moon's pale confine melt away."

This edition is very beautifully printed, and adorned with plates, whose execution exceeds the design. The drawing is in many respects defective.

The New Annual Register, or General Repository of History, Politics, and Literature, for the Year 1788. To which is prefixed, the History of Knowledge, Learning and Taste, in Great Britain, during the Reigns of King Edward the Sixth and Queen Mary. From the Year 1547 to 1558. 8vo. 6s. 6d. Half-bound. Robinsons.

WHILE the affairs of Europe are convulsed by revolutions, while innovations or reformations disturb the neighbouring continent, our more humble temporary historians must possess zeal, acuteness, attention, and reflection, to collect the various facts, to discriminate between the popular rumour and the real transactions, to preserve a calm distinguishing impartiality, and to connect the events with their previous causes. If this part of their task be difficult, if it involve them in details unusually extensive and peculiarly intricate, the easy progress of our own history will, we hope, compensate for it. In this part of the work, we trust it will be only necessary to point out marks of increasing commerce and prosperity, contrasted with the gloomy prophecies of opposition.

The authors in this volume have began the career, which will ultimately lead them to explain the source and the progress of the late intestine commotions in France. They have commenced with singular precision and judgment; and seem to have drawn the substance of their narrative from the best authorities. If they proceed as they have began, they will lay a secure foundation for a future historian, when time shall develop more clearly the various circumstances which can alone render the narrative more complete. But this must be unfolded at a future period; and the historian who would anticipate the evolution, will wander in wild and endless conjecture, unless

less assisted by a supernatural illumination. From this part of the work we shall select some passages, and we shall choose those which relate to the character of Mr. Necker. We think it is drawn with force, with justness, and propriety ; nor can we forbear to indulge the pride of observing, that we formed a similar opinion from reading his work on the Finances of France ; and that we ventured to express it, while all Europe resounded with his praises.

‘ It was a calamitous circumstance for the people of France, that, though peace had now been three years re-established in Europe, the system of finance seemed scarcely to be affected by so material a relief, and it was found necessary to close every year with a loan. For this disadvantage they were indebted to Mr. Necker. The extraordinary character and reputation which that minister has obtained, will scarcely permit us to suppose, that he had any sinister view in producing this effect ; but we are unable to vindicate his integrity but at the expence of his abilities. He was probably the first minister that ever conceived the project of supporting a war by loans without taxes. By this system he was raising in his favour a tide of vulgar popularity ; by this system he was making it difficult for any minister that should succeed him, to maintain himself in office ; by this system he perhaps believed he was serving the public. To execute it certainly required the possession of great labour, strict accuracy, severe economy. It was necessary that the minister should possess much personal consideration and respect, and that the prosperity of government should be attached to the credit of the individual that guided it. Perhaps it was hardly to be expected from human frailty, that the man, who had the means of exhibiting this glittering character, should resist the temptation of exhibiting it. But be that as it will, Mr. Necker accumulated burthens upon the kingdom, which, from the very circumstance of their being for a time suspended, and imperceptible to the common observer, would fall with tenfold weight upon his successor.’

‘ May we be permitted in this place to sum up the balance of Mr. Necker’s character ? He is undoubtedly an active and industrious statesman. Inured during the whole course of his life to arithmetical operations, he is peculiarly at home in them. He calculates the revenues of the first nation in the world with the facility of a merchant in his private transactions, and his estimates exhibit perhaps as few mistakes as were ever incurred in so complicated a business. His reputation for severe integrity is not probably destitute of foundation ; and it was of considerable service to him in his public career, as it deterred the importunities of thoughtless prodigality, and gave him fortitude to refuse the demands of interest and cabal. He entered upon office with the most honourable auspices. He began with frugality and economy. He introduced economy into all the departments

ments of the royal household, and employed every means in his power to create revenue without burthen to the state.

• If all these qualiries will constitute a great minister, Mr. Necker will probably remain without an equal. But if large and comprehensive views, if a lively persuasion in general principles, if a thorough knowledge of the philosophy of human affairs should be deemed necessary, Mr. Necker will be found greatly deficient. It was his lot to superintend the affairs of a country, where the great principles of policy had long been fermenting, where a succession of the most accomplished geniuses had been prosperously employed in investigating the sources of human happiness. One of the most considerable of these men had been early placed by Louis the Sixteenth at the head of his finances. But the prospect of felicity which had thus been opened to France, was short and deceitful. It was just shown to the world, to be removed for a period of indefinite extent. Necker rose upon the ruins of Turgot. France had tried a philosophical minister, she was now to try a political banker, skilled in all the detail and minutiae of finance. Mr. Necker neither understood nor desired to understand the principles of his predecessor. He was unacquainted with the true system of taxation, and treated the ideas to which future ages will be indebted for their happiness, as visionary and impracticable. He believed that commerce could never prosper so well as when consigned to the guardian care of monopolies and prohibitions. In the close of the eighteenth century he was the panegyrist of Colbert. The benefits which the short reign of Mr. Turgot enabled him to confer on the nation, were neglected or destroyed. A part of his system Mr. Necker could not refuse to applaud, that of provincial assemblies for the more equal distribution of the public burthens. But, though he professed to adopt it, he did not undertake to propose it as a general benefit to the nation, but introduced it in two provinces only, Berri and the Upper Guyenne. In these it was deprived of the advantages that had been proposed, and an odious aristocracy was introduced into an object, perhaps of all others most foreign to that system. Mr. Necker may be characterised in a single word, as the able advocate of long established errors, and the determined adversary of improvements originating in system and philosophy.

The other parts of the history are executed with equal perspicuity and accuracy. The debates on the trial of Mr. Hastings and on the slave-trade, seem to be abridged with peculiar care.

It has not been our custom to follow the editors in their different selections, and in their opinions of Foreign and Domestic works. In general, their conduct has met with our approbation; and we should not at this time have adverted to it, if we had not seen an instance of partiality, which we think dis-

graces the work. We particularly allude to the character given of Dr. Towers' Life of Frederic II. and the distinction it has received from the extracts. If our own opinion was alone to be opposed to this decision, we should have been silent; but when every other character which has been given of this work publicly, either in England or the continent, is the same, the conduct of the editor must appear to have been dictated by an injudicious partiality, which we have mentioned in stronger terms, as conduct of this kind, if continued, must be injurious. We are unacquainted with Dr. Towers, except from his publications; and we have not unwillingly commended these, where commendation appeared to be their due.

The department of Poetry is short; but this defect may be owing to the poetical publications of the year being fewer, or of less than usual merit. We greatly regret, however, that those pleasing 'original communications' which we have formerly so much admired, are discontinued. The History of Knowledge and Learning is, in this volume, extended to the end of the reign of queen Mary, in the year 1558. On the whole, we think it a very valuable one; and we can as cheerfully praise its merits as we can point out its faults. The next volume is promised 'speedily;' so that we shall make no remarks on the unusual delay of this before us.

Poems by Charles James, Esq. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Cadell.

THE following poems will naturally produce a variety of opinions,' says Mr. James, impressed with that pleasing self-delusion almost every author is apt to entertain concerning the importance of his own performance. But in our opinion they will float down the tide of time to the gulf of oblivion, with but little notice having been taken either of their beauties or their blemishes. The sails will neither be distended by the popular gale, nor shattered by the blasts of hostile criticism. The path of poetry, however pleasing, as seldom leads to praise as profit in modern times. The easiness of the way proves detrimental to the votaries of the Muses in both respects. Since the days of Pope the harmony of our language has been so well understood, its common rhymes so familiarized to the ear, that a school-boy can now compose with greater facility than a poet-laureat in the age of queen Elizabeth. The principal poems contained in those volumes, are thus mentioned in the title-page: 'Vanity of Fame. Petrarch to Laura. Acontius to Cydippe,' with the Latin original, and Duke's translation annexed. The introduction of the latter was certainly extremely superfluous. It would tend indeed to an author's discredit to translate worse than Duke;

6.

but

but merely to excel him, conveys no idea of positive merit. The other poems are entitled *The Year 1800*; or, *It will be so*, a satirical poem, and the *Suicide*, 'written, as the author says in the contents, at the request of an unfortunate friend who afterwards shot himself.' The same account is prefixed to the poem: but in the preface Mr. James declares, 'with regard to the principles contained in the *Suicide*, I judge it highly necessary to assure the public that the sentiments of the writer very widely differ from those of the unhappy object whose *melancholy end occasioned the composition*.' It is not easy to reconcile this contradictory account, and the poem does not tend to unravel the mystery. One might indeed be almost tempted to suppose that it was written by the unfortunate young gentleman himself, for it is thrown into the form of a soliloquy spoken by him. No arguments of a contrary tendency, though it is said to have been 'a frequent subject of conversation previous to his taking that desperate resolution,' are introduced. But as we trust our readers will be in no danger from the arguments here alledged in favour of suicide, we shall submit the concluding part of this poem to their judgment.

‘ That pure Omiscience could descend to frame,
For mortal trespasses, immortal woe,
Is what fair reason shudders to proclaim,
And fear, or int'rest only spread below.

If there be one, like me, condemn'd to share
Grief's bitt'rest pang, and agonising strife—
Whose mind is meekly passive in despair,
Because he meditates eternal life;

May such the tale of prejudice disown:
He nobly dares, who, deaf to nature's cries,
Undaunted plunges into worlds unknown,
While strong conviction points him to the skies.

He nobly dares, before whose steady eye,
Uncertain horrors innocently glow:
Who springs, impatient of each earthly tie,
From all the certainty of earthly woe.

When the pent thunder, in the tempest's womb,
Heaves for its birth and mutters round the skies,
From Heav'n's Omnipotent athwart the gloom,
Blue light'ning flashes and the tumult dies.

And sure if Heav'n has lent a spark divine
To what must own corruption and decay,
That spark, when troubled in its cumbrous shrine,
May spurn the load and brighten into day.

Then why this dread! when death our surest friend,
Looks from his dark and solitary home?

The frown we shrink at is affliction's end,
 The pang we fear is ecstacy to come.
 Misfortunes wean us from alluring sin,
 And lift the soul to Heav'n's eternal year :
 Each woe that tortures is a voice within,
 Whose echo calls us from the pains we bear,
 But hush ! what means that murmur in reply ?
 What fiend, enamour'd with illusive state,
 To proud Augusta counsels me to fly,
 And court the casual friendship of the Great ?
 Detested plan ! at which the free-born mind
 Starts with disdain, and spurns the crumb it wants ;
 Is genius then so slighted by mankind,
 That nothing's left it but the courtier's taunts ?
 Shall he, whose numbers were by Delia prais'd—
 Deceitful praise that charm'd me into ill—
 Whose purest incense was to Delia rais'd !
 To grandeur cringe and prostitute his will.
 Ah ! sooner let me wander into fens,
 Where nature only prompts the savage breast ;
 Where man, in friendship with the tyger run,
 Consumes his acorn and enjoys his rest.
 Yet thither, swifter than the wintry blast,
 The rankling torture of my breast would move ;
 Still must remembrance point to me the past,
 I still must languish, for I still should love !
 Then come thou friendly weapon—in whose womb
 Fate sits secure and certain of its prey ;
 While Delia's image lights me to the tomb,
 From Delia's charms thus rend each wish away.'

This specimen may serve to show that Mr. James is not a
 tame inanimate writer ; he has beauties as well as faults ; but
 surely not of sufficient consequence to attract, in any great de-
 gree, what he seems to expect, the public attention.

*Suicide ; a Poem. By Mary Dawes Blackett. 4to. 1s. 6d.,
 Robinsons.*

IT is said that on Charles the Second's requesting the mem-
 bers of the Philosophic Society to assign the cause why wa-
 ter, when an eel was immersed into a basin of it, should rise no
 higher than it was before such an immersion ? they prepared
 different answers to account for so remarkable a phenomenon ;
 at length one, probably less speculative than the others, was
 desirous that the fact should be first ascertained. The eel was
 accordingly immersed, and the water rose in proportion to its
 bulk.

bulk. Some observations now before us seem to stand in nearly the same predicament. Mrs. Blacket says, 'that the people of this country are notoriously eminent for the commission of this crime, is a truth that has long been admitted : though why it should be so, is what cannot easily be accounted for on any principle of nature.' Thousands and ten thousands have asserted, and believed the same, but this *generally admitted truth* appears to us extremely questionable. The fact should be proved before the matter is investigated. That more acts of the kind are made public here than in any other country must be allowed : few indeed, we believe, escape notice, by means of the extensive information received and retailed by the compilers of our newspapers. Were those of other countries equally sedulous in collecting and publishing domestic occurrences, we have little doubt but that many of our neighbours would be found no less addicted than ourselves to suicide. Some recent instances have occurred, and by means of their being committed in England, attracted public notice : had these gentlemen put a period to their lives in their own kingdom, the knowledge of it would scarcely have extended beyond the limits of the city or province in which the fact was committed. Montesquieu candidly attributes our predilection for suicide, and our ill success in all works of genius, to the same cause, a damp and ungenial atmosphere ; and we give him equal credit for each opinion. Our author waves as unsatisfactory the reasons that have been commonly alledged for our unhappy propensity in this respect, and asserts it to be ' the consequence of a misguided education.' The reader will possibly be as much surprised at this affirmation, as Yorick was at Father Shandy's attributing the little knowledge acquired by children in their education, to the neglect of the auxiliary verbs. The remark was dictated, however, by humanity.

‘ If we examine into the minutia of our laws, which were certainly formed upon the spirit of the people, we shall find, that with all our virtues, we still possess a sanguinary and revengeful disposition ; else why do we indiscriminately condemn to death the numerous train of unhappy victims, who almost daily expire at the gallows, dragged forth to public view, and launched into eternity, either for taking the purse or life of their fellow citizen.

‘ Is there no medium, no alternative ? Surely, men of sound judgment, great moral rectitude, and enlightened understandings, such as our judges are, might find a mean to lessen this dreadful spectacle of harm ; or at least to let it return less frequently to the eyes of the multitude.

‘ For if we consider that the majority of these poor wretches have been initiated at an early period into the mysteries of vice, and that even in our jails they herd together, hardening each other against every call of reason or reflection ; and that the
space

space of time between condemnation and execution is frequently too short to awaken in their minds a just apprehension of that Being, whose name they have never uttered but with blasphemies, whose mercies they have never invoked, one of whose anger they were regardless; that thus apathised, they meet their sentence with the most perfect unconcern, and look upon it as the consequent finale of the part they have acted, and infinitely preferable to confinement or labour.'

If there is any argument in this passage, it applies to the severe spirit of our laws, which, in a variety of instances, inflict capital punishments for offences merely of human institution; and against the total want of an education, not a *misguided one*. But though the former may be the cause of many unhappy men falling victims to the laws of their country, it certainly seldom or never prompts them to self-destruction. Suicide we may more often attribute to a false refinement of manners, to

' ——— fell despair,
Wild dissipation, and insatiate care,
Lust, avarice, or dissingenuous shame.'

Indeed not one of the characters introduced in this poem appears to have owed its fate to a defective education; for Chatterton may be considered as self-taught, and his genius superseded the want of it. In general they were accomplished in arts or arms, conspicuous for birth and talents.—In a poem containing but eighteen pages, and entered at Stationer's hall, we should scarcely have expected such weak careless lines as,

' Ah where was Marcia, whose care should save.'
' To her hand Amalthea gave the horn.'

Much less such very incorrect ones as these:

' And every bright idea restrain'd.'
' Coward, sayst thou, was Caithness base?'

We meet likewise with some unwarrantable rhymes; notwithstanding which we shall not withhold from Mrs. Blackett her due praise. Many passages are marked by elegance and harmony; and Chatterton's unhappy end is thus feelingly described:

' Not so, poor Chatterton, whose tuneful lay,
Had crown'd his youthful brow with living bay;
Short was his reign, though genius strung his lyre,
Wak'd each bright thought, and gave his numbers fire.
With rapid hand he swept the trembling string,
And taste and judgment paus'd to hear him sing:
The forerests Hope bade expectation rise,
And Flattery bore his plaudits to the skies.
On all his hours the playful sisters smil'd,
And with fresh promises his heart beguil'd.

At length repulse drew the thin veil aside,
Shock'd at the scene, he bow'd his head and died.
He died, but ah ! what horrors urg'd his death,
No waiting cherub caught his fleeting breath ;
No friend assiduous pour'd the parting tear,
Watch'd his last glance, or grac'd the mourning bier.

' Oh ! say, all-potent goddess, Nature, say,
How could a soul like his, despair obey ;
A soul which genius, taste, and truth refin'd,
A soul where all the virtues were combin'd ;
Where filial duty and fraternal love
Did every thought and every action move.

' Ah ! had Reflection, to her office true,
Shewn the sad mother's anguish to his view ;
When all her hope, her pride, her joy, repress'd,
Sad desolation seiz'd her widow'd breast ;
Then had he paus'd, and, ere he clos'd his course,
His guardian genii had awoke remorse ;
In gentle whispers sooth'd his soul to peace,
Reviv'd his hopes, and bade his sorrows cease.
But ah ! too sensible of want and shame,
Too gentle to endure uncandid blame ;
Afraid to brave the censures of the throng,
And wanting means his being to prolong :
Unus'd to beg, unwilling to offend,
Without a patron, advocate, or friend :
No sympathetic breast to share his grief,
To sooth his sorrows, or afford relief :
Alone and unprotected in life's void,
His honour blasted, and his hopes destroy'd ;
No cheerful ray to gild the gloomy scene,
By malice darken'd and disturb'd by spleen ;
His soul indignant brav'd its awful fate,
Unthinking, brav'd, or thought, alas ! too late !
Unable to endure the scoff of pride,
By his own hand the hapless victim died.'

A General History of the Othoman Empire. Dedicated to the King of Sweden. Translated from the French of M. de M— D'Ohoffon. 4to. Vol. I. with French Plates. Folio. 5l. 5s. in Boards. Robinsons.

WE examined the original of this work in our LXVth volume, p. 473. at some extent, and gave a general account of our author's plan, the execution, and the embellishments. The English edition does not equal the original in splendor ; but the plates, which are bound separately in folio, appear to be the same ; and the execution in other respects, though not equally brilliant, cannot be censured. This volume is handsomely printed on a good paper.

The

The translator says nothing for himself or his work. We have compared it with some care in different passages, and the version appears to be neat and accurate. It is, however, correct rather than elegant; and the translator, like his author, prefers perspicuity to animation. The language is not tortured into harshness, or rendered unpleasing by foreign idioms. We need not again analyse this work, but shall content ourselves with extracting a short passage, selected without any great care, to enable our reader to judge impartially of the general merits of this English version.

‘ The tombs of the patriarchs and prophets are also in the eyes of Mussulmen an object of veneration. Selim I. after having subjugated Syria in 922 (1516), and passed the winter in Damas, would not march against Egypt till he had visited Jerusalem, attended by some officers: he went thither incognito with the greatest expedition, and immediately on his arrival he repaired to mount Keoabh-Khali, to pay homage to the tombs of Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, Joseph, &c. A heavy rain was no impediment to this pious visit; he discharged without delay his religious duty, and set out immediately on his return to Damas.

‘ Besides that profound reverence with which the Mahometans regard those whom they believe to have died in a state of holiness, they have a great respect for those who are distinguished by their piety, particularly the dervishs, or hermits, who, devoted to a life of retirement and contemplation, pass their days in the austere practice of the moral virtues. These sentiments are equally respected by the sovereign, as by persons of all ranks under their authority. The least religious among the khaliphs, the most dissolute and impious princes, have in all ages given proofs of a particular regard for these penitents. Among others, history mentions the celebrated Timour. This Tartar hero, the scourge of the East, marching over Herath in 782 (1380), passed by Taïbad. Ebu-Bekir Zein’ud-dinn, a hermit, excited the devotion and attracted the visits of all the people in that district. Timour wished to see him, and sent him an invitation to come to his camp. The hermit refused peremptorily complying with his request. “ I should condemn myself,” said he, “ if I were to set my foot in the tent of a prince who is such an enemy of mankind, so careless an observer of the Cour’ann, and of the precepts of the prophet.” Astonished at the firm and decided conduct of this anchoret, Timour determined to go to see him: he repaired to his cell; and this renowned conqueror, says Ahmed Esfendy, this fierce and imperious prince, the glances of whose eye no mortal presumed to sustain, was so affected by the aspect of the venerable sage, so much awed by his virtue, that he could not refrain from tears. He listened with eagerness to his salutary instruction; he heard with terror the menaces which he denounced,

nounced, in the name of heaven, against wicked, inhuman, irreligious princes, and left him with transports of admiration, and with the most striking proofs of his bounty and regard.'

The Letters of Simpkín the Second, Poetic Recorder of all the Proceedings upon the Trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. in Westminster Hall. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Stockdale.

Letters from Simpkín the Second, to his dear Brother in Wales. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Bell.

THESE Letters were originally printed in the World; and, when taken, 'out of the World,' our author tells us, that his undertaker is Stockdale. On comparing these different editions, we find the first to be the most full and complete, but Sheridan's remarks on Mr. Middleton's evidence, which are truly humorous, occur only in the second. The address too is peculiar to Mr. Bell's edition. On the other hand, the additional letters, greater accuracy, and the apparent authenticity, render Mr. Stockdale's, on the whole, much superior.

Our readers need not be told of Mr. Antey and the Bath Guide. These Letters do not possess the unimpaired spirit of that admirable work; but, on a theme apparently unpromising, we receive more entertainment than we could have expected. Some parts are highly coloured, and some characters humourously caricatured. The incidents of the trial are well known, so that we need only transcribe a specimen: perhaps the introduction of Mr. Sheridan's speech will be sufficient. We copy from the octavo volume:

'Permit me, my lords, ere I speak more at large,
To disclaim every motive for making this charge.
Has the nabob complain'd? Is the prisoner accus'd
At the suit of those ladies we say he abus'd?
'Tis the cause of mankind, led by Edmund the brave,
His object is man, from man's baseness to save.
The minister Pitt says, "the Treasury is drain'd;"
But all must admit they are much entertain'd.
However, I'd have it be well understood,
If we have any motive, 'tis certainly good,
My lords, you expect proofs conclusive and strong;
But in that expectation, your lordships are wrong:
From documents written, no proof can we draw,
Nor can any one swear—to what nobody saw.
I'm not pleading excuse for our failing in proof,
For tho' we bring none, we can make out enough:
I shall make out enough from the pris'ner's defence,
By giving my meaning, and taking his sense.
'Tis said, when the house a delinquent impeaches,
The managers should be correct in their speeches;

That

That is, they should make a plain simple narration
 Of facts, well attested, without aggravation:
 That legal chicanery should not assist,
 To give the plain sense an ingenious twist.
 But, my lords, by your leave, the distinction I'll trace,
 Betwixt misdemeanour and capital case;
 For unless we were certain your lordships would hang him,
 'The managers' tongues claim a licence to bang him.'

We find the Letters are to be continued; and some additional ones on the late edition of Bellendenus are promised.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

WE have not been so attentive to the classical publications of the continent, or, in other words, to the foreign classical intelligence, as the subject may seem to deserve. In reality, information of this kind is confined to the publications of the continent, and since it is not always easy to procure them, we must trust to accounts, which have often deceived us, and we may, by these fallacious guides, mislead our readers. We have, however, formerly given a sketch of this kind, and we find our correspondents wish for its continuation; so that we shall comply with their wishes, and give our Intelligence as correctly and completely as we can.

It would be classical heresy not to begin with Homer. The library of Saint Marc, at Venice, has furnished two manuscripts of Homer, which M. Villoison, a name well known in the literary world, has published at Venice, in folio, with a copious introduction, and numerous notes from the same MSS. The first belongs to the tenth century, and is consequently two hundred years older than Eustathius; the second, a production of the eleventh century. The first is valuable for having the text with the variations of the older readings, which are to be found in no other manuscripts, as well as indices in the margin to point out the obscure or corrupted verses. The other contains some very useful notes, to facilitate the knowledge of the text. Some other advantages occur in this edition, for which the editor is indebted to a manuscript in the library at Leipzig, and to another from the Vatican: from the latter the observations of Porphyry on the Iliad are extracted. The introduction is full of excellent critical remarks; and the impression is said to be no less accurate than elegant. From the same collection M. Villoison, in the first volume of the *Anecdota Græca*, p. 226. drew his information of the discovery of two new treatises of Plotinus, one on the influence of the heavens on the earth; the other on unity, as the origin of the universe. The learned world formed some expectations from this discovery; but M. Grimm's publication at Leipzig seems to check their curiosity. In this little tract, entitled *Plotini de Rerum Principio, Ennead.*
 iii.

iii. lib. viii. cap. 8—10. animadversionibus illustrata Fr. Chr. Grimmio, he has shown that these two treatises are only fragments to be found in the printed works of Plotinus.

M. Theoph. Chr. Harles had designed to publish an edition of Aristophanes, when he was prevented by M. Brunk. He has, however, printed the 'Clouds' as a specimen of the manner in which the whole was to have been executed. The text and the version of Bergler are followed; and his own observations are printed at the bottom of the page; the notes which follow are copied from Kuster. The preface explains the plan of the projected edition, and contains some curious literary information respecting Aristophanes.

Two editions of Meleager also claim our attention. M. Brunk has published all that remains of this minor poet, at Leipzig, in octavo. Meleager was born on the banks of the Euphrates, in the dynasty of the Seleucidæ, during the reign of Seleucus Philopater. He went from Tyre to Cos, and his works are either short epigrams, or collections from other poets. For the generality of his shorter works the reader was obliged to wade through the vast collection of the Anthologia. The greatest work of Meleager is the Chapter, collected from different authors, whose names he has preserved in an elegy addressed to Diocles. He has entitled this piece the Παναθηναϊκὸν, and of course gives to each poet the name of the flower which he thinks best adapted to him. Philip of Thessalonica, who lived in the time of Augustus, the historian Agathias, who flourished in the age of Justinian, and Constantine Rephalas, a name in other respects unheard of, added, at their respective ~~eras~~, other flowers to the 'Garland.' These pieces, in the fifteenth century, fell into the hands of the monk Planudes, who is said to have mutilated the work by injudicious curtailments: it is now however restored. Before this more complete edition of Brunk, M. Munecke had published the Idyllium of Meleager on the Spring, separately, at Gottingen. This poem is taken from the Anthologia, and explained with taste and judgment by the editor.

We find on our list the other minor poets, viz. Theocritus, Moschus, and Bion; but the work alluded to is a translation, in Latin verse, of these authors, by count Zamanga. The world is already indebted to him for a translation of the Odyssey, and of Hesiod, which with his translation of Theocritus, deserve, from the specimens which we have seen, considerable commendation: some of these versions have indeed been formerly published with the Italian translation of Buccchetti, and the notes of M. Carlo Albani. The second, fourth, eighth, eighteenth, twenty-first, and twenty-eighth Idyllia of Theocritus are translated by the abbé Raymond Cunich, the translator of the *Miad*. The poems also of Bion have been already translated, and may be seen in the third and last volume of the *Literary Journal of Gena*, in 1777; but the present version, which

which contains the thirty Idyllia of Theocritus; the eight poems of Moschus; to which are added a very ancient one of 'Love employed in Agriculture,' and the nine Idyllia of Bion, is a very complete, as well as a correct and elegant one.

A new edition of the History of Herodian has also appeared in Germany, by T. W. Irmisch. The first volume, which now lies before us, and is the only one yet published, contains the first book. The text is that of Henry Stephens; the version M. Bergler's; the notes are collected from various editors, and many of them belong to M. Irmisch. The various readings are rather explanations, of no great importance. They are collected from a MS. in the library of Munich, another in that of Saint Mark at Venice, and a third from Vienna: on the whole we expect that this will prove a valuable edition of Herodian. The Anecdotes of Hierocles are also published at Leipzig, in small 12mo. for the use of schools. Hierocles taught the Platonic philosophy in the fifth century, at Alexandria; but these tales may, perhaps with more justice and propriety, be attributed to another author of the same name. *Ηieroκλής αἰνὰ*, are accompanied by some modern anecdotes, and are intended by their pleasantry to allure the scholar to the study of the Greek.

We need make no excuse for introducing some account of an edition of the New Testament among the Greek Classics. We allude to the following work: *Novum Testamentum, ad Codicem Vindobonensem, Græce expressum, Varietatem Lectionis addidit Franciscus Carolus Alter, Professor Gymnasii Vindobonensis*. It is comprised in two very thick volumes, large octavo. The work is very valuable, since the library at Vienna is rich in manuscripts of the New Testament, and since the author joins considerable precision to the most interesting modesty. He has taken for his text the MS. marked No. 1. by Lambecius, and 23 in Nessel, without giving the reason of his choice, or describing the manuscript. He has compared with this nineteen other MSS. or editions for the Gospels, which are comprised in the first volume, and eleven for the Acts, &c. which are contained in the second. His accuracy is certainly superior to his judgment, since he has occasionally corrected, as a fault in his text, what is really a different and a better reading. A Greek MS. of the New Testament in the library at Upsal is collated and described by Aurivilius, to which he has added a fac simile of the writing. It is a quarto of 105 pages. The MS. was purchased at Venice, and is numbered 42 in the library of the Academy, to which it was presented by Sparwenfeld. It contains 220 leaves; and some readings which occur in no other MS. are found in it. We are sorry to add, that they do not appear of much importance. Connected with this subject, we may mention a work published last year at Helmstadt. It is entitled *Accuratio Manuscriptorum, quibus Versio Novi Testamenti Philoxeniana continetur Catalogus*. This
catalogue

catalogue is separately printed, though it forms an article in the *Annales Literaires* of Leipsig. Ridley, in his Dissertation on the Syriac MSS. of the New Testament, had enumerated fifteen which contain the version of Philoxenus; but, as he had seen only the smallest part of these, it is not surprising that his edition should be corrected in consequence of the laborious researches of Adler and Storr. We do not find in Ridley the MSS. numbered 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, and 14 of Peschito, as well as some others, which M. Adler first pointed out. M. Paulus, the author of this more correct catalogue, mentions nine MSS. of Philoxenus, which contained the Gospels. The No. 1. of Ridley contained only the Acts of the Apostles and the Epistles. The Apocalypse, published by Louis de Dieu, is probably a portion of the version of Philoxenus. There is perhaps another MS. of this version at Florence in the Medicean library, pointed out in p. 50. of Assemani's Catalogue. It is uncertain also what became of the MS. which Dr. Pococke possessed, from which the four Catholic Epistles, which he published, were drawn: as we know M. Paulus has been in England, he has probably by this time discovered it, though he was very reserved in his conversation on this point, and has not been more explicit in his dissertation. While we are speaking of Syriac versions, we may mention the Syriac MS. of the Hexapla of Origen, from the Ambrosian library at Milan, published by M. Norberg at Lunden. It is a quarto of 502 pages, and contains Jeremiah and Ezekiel; but why these books are selected, for they are not the first in the manuscript, he has not explained. The Syriac text is given first, with the translation of the Hexapla of Origen, and critical notes; a Latin version by M. Norberg follows. There appear to be some errors in this translation, from the accounts before us, though it is in general executed with accuracy. The paper and printing are said to be very elegant. The Syriac version of the Old Testament has been separated from the English Polyglot, and published separately in Germany.

We have been drawn from our path, by following collateral subjects, into the regions of sacred literature, though we hope not without profit. We must now return to classical productions. Among the Latins our first attention is due to Virgil; and we congratulate our readers on the completion of Heyne's edition of the first of Latin poets. The Virgil of Heyne is well known; but this is a second edition, altered in many respects, and we think rendered much more valuable. To him we are already indebted for very good editions of Epictetus, Apollodorus, Pindar; and Tibullus; but the Virgil before us rises higher in the scale than his other attempts. In the former edition his commentary related to the verbal construction, and was a little detrimental to the poetic fire of his author. He now examines the works of the bard rather as a critic, and considers not only the subject, but the conduct of Virgil; his

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merit in the arrangement, and in the relative proportions of each part. To the natural history of Virgil he has added nothing to what is found in Martin; but in the other parts of the *Georgics* he has consulted the different agricultural writers among the ancients; while, in the *Bucolics* and *Æneid*, he has compared his author with Theocritus and with Homer. New and more perspicuous arguments are also added. There were in the former edition several articles designed to illustrate different parts of the *Eclogues*, *Georgics*, and *Æneid*: these are now corrected, and some new ones, if we recollect rightly, are added. The text is entirely that of Heinsius: the orthography of that editor may, however, be the subject of some dispute, and at best it is unpleasing. In adjusting the punctuation, M. Heyne has taken uncommon pains, and differs greatly from former editors. In general, we think his judgment has conducted him safely in this difficult tract. Many emendations in the text occur, which deserve great attention, and have often excited our applause. The mutilated and interpolated lines, at least those which are suspected to be so, are pointed out, but are not omitted, seemingly because it would disturb the references, which are generally made by the number of lines. The emendations of Schrader, and the remarks of Mr. Bryant, author of the *Analysia*, are subjoined. The various readings, the index, every useful and ornamental appendage, are to be found in their fullest extent. This edition is dedicated, in Latin verse, to the princes of England, who are now studying at Gottingen; and we hope, by their attention, that they will deserve this honour, for it is no inconsiderable one to be the patrons of one of the most valuable editions that we have seen of any classic, published by one of the most learned men of any age.

From the connection of the subjects we shall mention in this place the dissertation of the abbé Andres on the Episode of Dido and *Æneas*, published at Cesena. His object is to defend Virgil from the anachronism which he has been so frequently supposed to be guilty of, in making these two personages cotemporaries. The abbé draws some arguments from the silence of the ancient grammarians, who used to contend and quibble about the most trifling circumstances; and some, from the scrupulous attention of Virgil to the most inconsiderable fictions, to epithets and expressions: but the principal argument is borrowed from Newton, who considers but twenty-one years to have intervened between the foundation of Carthage and the destruction of Troy. Another more modern chronologist supposes it to be thirty-eight years. M. Andres, from this circumstance, thinks that he has proved them to be cotemporaries; but he has not proved that they could have met on the coast of Africa; or that a woman, who on this foundation must have nearly reached her forty-fifth year, could have been peculiarly attractive to the Trojan prince. Perhaps he may find in this fact an excuse for the hero's having left Dido. He, however, undertakes the arduous

task.

talk of showing that Virgil did not act improperly by making them lovers, since from various quotations it seems to have been the popular opinion at that time at Rome.

We find a new edition of Horace, published at Strasburg in 4to. by M. Oberlin; which we have not yet seen. It is said, in the *Journal des Sçavans*, to be printed with great elegance; and that the text has been corrected from four MSS. two of the tenth, one of the eleventh, and one of the twelfth century. The old orthography is we find preserved. Ovid's *Ars Amandi* has been published also at Helmstadt, from the text of Burman, By M. Wernstorf. The various readings are added in the margin. The comedies of Terence have also been published at Copenhagen, from the edition of Westerhof, with the notes of the editor, Gudmund Magneus, of Iceland; a copious index, &c. &c. Some notes from other authors are also subjoined. Franzius has, we are informed, at last completed his edition of Pliny, in eight volumes octavo, at Leipzig, after ten years interval. It contains the explanation and all the notes of P. Harduin, with the most respectable commentaries and the most valuable notes which have hitherto appeared. Indeed this seems to be the most complete and valuable edition of Pliny that has been ever published. Sextus Aurelius Victor's *Roman History* has lately been published at Erlangen, for the use of schools, from Gruner's more expensive edition.

While we are speaking of Latin Classics, we must not omit the more modern authors of Latin Poetry; and the first of these which occurs is Serranus Valentinus. Tommaso Serrano was a Spaniard, who died about four years since at Bologna. He undertook to defend the cause of Martial, and to imitate him. His concealed antagonist in Spain was distinguished by the fictitious name of Barbàdigno; and, in Italy, he was opposed in a friendly controversy by the chevalier Vannetti. In his imitations of Martial he discovers the precision, the terseness, and the perspicuity of that celebrated epigrammatist, without descending to his abuse, or his licentiousness. He tells us that he was born a poet, in the following easy lines:

‘ Me juvet incomptos ex tempore fundere versus;
Sunt quibus a Lima, laus prope tota venit.
Arti & Nature Pindum divisit Apollo;
Sunt illi vates illius, hujus ego.’

His eulogium on the canon Minzoni, a celebrated preacher and poet is singularly happy:

‘ Minzonus sacer orator, quo carmine digne
Laudari possit, Dic mihi Musa? Suo.’

But we shall omit other specimens, that we may have room for the following lines, where our author trifles with all the graces and all the elegance of Catullus, and enters his protest against every indelicacy:

E c 2

‘ Veronæ

' Veronæ numeri aurei, venite
 Lenes, & faciles & elegantes,
 Quos vates Veneris cupidinisque
 Omni immunditiâ & luto inquinavit,
 Tum cum nequitias procaciores,
 Jocos, deliciasque nequiores
 Ausus virginibus dicare Mulis,
 Ego, vos ego sordidi poetæ
 Abstergam maculis pio calore,
 Et cultu faciam novo nitere
 Addam munditias decentiores,
 Queis culti nitidique, jure sitis
 Mundi deliciæ elegantioris.
 Vobis Lesbica nulla jam canetur,
 Meam discite Parthenim sonare,
 Quam simul lepido canetis ore :
 Immixti puerique virginesque
 Jam vos delicias suas vocabunt.'

Let us also in this place mention the Latin translation of Tasso's *Gerusalemme Liberata*, by M. Frambaglia, published at Turin. The design of the author is to give some idea of the beauties of Tasso, to those who are unacquainted with the Italian. A similar translation was published by Domenico Zauni, at Cremona, in 1743; but the present attempt appears to be on the whole superior. We shall transcribe the version of the first stanza :

' Arma virumque cano qui Christi insigne sepulchrum
 Sustulit è durâ sævæque tyrannide Thracum.
 Ingenio multa ille est ausus, multa patravit
 Dextrâ, multa tulit nec non incommoda belli.
 Nequicquam contra vis obstitit effera ditis ;
 Frustra Asiæ & Lybiæ coiere in prælia Gentes ;
 Prospera namque olli fuit alta potentia Cœli,
 Et sacra errantes socios sub signa coegit.'

Our readers will probably anticipate our remark, that this version is more easy and perspicuous than spirited or elegant.

In the little space which remains we shall mention one or two publications connected with the classics, and with classic ground. The first is entitled ' *Historico-critical Annotations on the Sallustian Obelisk.*' This was recovered from some ruins, and placed by the present pope, Pius VI. on the Colle Pincio. It has its name from having been formerly erected in the gardens of Sallust. The author expatiates on the propriety of its situation; for an observer in the centre of four streets sees, in three of these, monuments of the same kind : in reality, it is restored to the same hill, though in another part, since it is now near the famous gardens of Lucullus. The Colle Pincio was formerly covered with the gardens of different patricians, and called from thence *Collis Hortulorum*. In the Circus, at the bottom, the

the obelisk was probably first raised in the time of Aurelian, who was very fond of the different games, and always resided, when at Rome, in the gardens of Sallust. The name of the hill was taken from the senatorian family Pincia, to whom the gardens belonged at the decline of the Roman empire, five centuries after the first construction. This family supported the gardens with so much dignity, that Theodoric wished to reside there, and directed the ornaments to be removed to his palace at Ravenna. The following elegant inscription was written by the abbé Morcelli, to be engraved on the base of this obelisk :

PIUS VI. PONT. MAX.
 OBELICUM SALLUSTIANUM
 QUÆM PROLAPSIONE DIFFRACTUM
 SUPERIOR ÆTAS
 IACENTEM RELLOQUERAT
 COLLI HORTULORUM
 IN SUBSIDENTIAM VIARUM
 PROSPECTU IMPOSITUM
 TROPÆO
 CRUCIS PRÆFIXO,
 TRINITATI AUGUSTÆ
 DEDICAVIT.

Our author adds some historical remarks on obelisks, which he thinks were first erected in Ægypt, by Mithras, two centuries after Abraham, in honour of the sun. The form is that of a sun's ray, and it was usually adorned on the top by some emblem of the sun. The obelisk was first introduced in Rome, he thinks, in the reign of Augustus; and these monuments were transported from Ægypt in ships, and not on rafts, as many have supposed. The argument in favour of the employment of ships for this purpose is taken from Pliny.

Count Carli, whose visions we formerly examined, has published, at Milan, the first volume of a work on the antiquities of Italy. He commences this account at the period when the Mediterranean was formed by the Atlantic bursting through the Straits of Gibraltar; and he differs from all the ancient historians, in supposing that the inhabitants of Etruria sent colonies to Greece, instead of receiving them from the continent and islands of Asia. The first volume is chiefly confined to the province of Istria; but, if possible, we shall endeavour to give a more full account of this fanciful performance.

M. Formaleone has published, at Venice, the Philosophical and Political History of the Navigation, Trade, and Colonies of the Ancients in the Black Sea. This route of commerce he wishes to see again frequented. Perhaps it would not now be found very commodious; but, with the most sanguine expectation of its renewal, he purposes to give the ancient and modern history and geography of this sea, at a great extent.

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Whatever may be his views, the result will undoubtedly be curious, entertaining, and instructive. We shall, in some future volume, mention his progress and success.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

DIVINITY, RELIGIOUS, &c.

Sermons on different Subjects, left for Publication by John Taylor, LL. D. Vol. II. Published by the Rev. Samuel Hayes, A. M. To which is added, a Sermon, written by Samuel Johnson, LL. D. for the Funeral of his Wife. Svo. 4s. Boards. Cadell.

IN our LXVIth volume, p. 443. we reviewed the first volume of these Sermons, which have been attributed with great confidence to Dr. Johnson. We examined that volume at some length; and, without entering at all into the question, to whom they may be originally attributed, we can truly say, that these discourses possess all the energy, all the perspicuity, all the pointed accuracy of the former volume, which would not have disgraced Johnson.

There is one Sermon, of which we anticipated the merits, and almost wished to overleap the intervening pages, that we might more quickly arrive at it, we mean that on the Sacrament, from 1 Corinth. xi. 29. Our author does not explain away the word *κρίμα*, translated *damnation*; but gives a different view of the meaning of eating and drinking unworthily:

‘When eternal punishments are denounced against any crimes, it is always evidently the intention of the writer to declare and enforce to those, that are yet innocent, the duty of avoiding them, and to those who have already committed them, the necessity of repentance, reformation, and future caution. For it is not the will of God, that any should perish, but that all should repent, and be saved. It is not by one act of wickedness, that infinite mercy will be kindled to everlasting anger, and the beneficent Father of the universe for ever alienated from his creatures; but by a long course of crimes, deliberately committed against the convictions of conscience, and the admonitions of grace; by a life spent in guilt, and concluded without repentance. *No drunkard or extortioner, says the Apostle, shall inherit eternal life.* Yet shall no man be excluded from future happiness, by a single instance, or even by long habits, of intemperance, or extortion. Repentance and new life will efface his crimes, reinstate him in the favour of his judge, restore him to those promises which he has forfeited, and open the paths to eternal happiness.’

On the whole, we think this additional volume a valuable acquisition to the literature of the pulpit, and we strongly recommend it, not only to those young divines who are unable or unwilling

willing to compose their own sermons, but to masters of families, as admirably calculated for the evening instructions.

Wisdom's Dictates; or a Collection of Maxims and Observations concerning Divine and Spiritual Truths. Extracted from the Works of various Spiritual Writers, and particularly from those of Emanuel Swedenborg. 8vo. 1s. 6d. sewed. Chalklen.

Though we have been much pleased with this manual of mysticism, and entertained with the eccentricities of the human mind, when freed from the guidance of reason, and the regulation of judgment, yet we think it would not be generally satisfactory to give a detail of it. We shall select a short specimen, with the application.

‘Sect. 76. The spiritual world must be more peopled with spiritual inhabitants, than the natural world is with natural inhabitants: but how little do men know of that state!

‘77. The spiritual world is united to the natural world, as soul is to body.

‘78. All the influences of the spiritual world terminate in the natural world, and its subjects.

‘80. Every subject in creation possesses virtues answering to its corresponding spiritual principle, and the noblest system of medicine will hereafter be founded on that knowledge.’

‘90. Every subject whatever, that is found in the natural world, however external, insignificant, and minute it may appear, corresponds to a principle in the spiritual world.

‘91. The natural world is the body of the spiritual world; and every part of it answers to some principle in those spiritual societies which are therein.’

‘101. All the qualities of the unclean subjects answer to the nature of the evil principles in the spiritual world, and in man, unto which they correspond: and as evils and falsities are made to serve for the purification of goods and truths, so those principles will hereafter be used in medicine, for the dispersion of corrupt principles in the body, answering unto diseases of the spiritual mind.’

Two Discourses. Addressed to the Guardians and Children of the Asylum. Preached in the Chapel, March 8, 1789. By the Rev. Samuel Hopkinson, A. M. 4to. 1s. 6d. Simmonds.

Mr. Hopkinson's Sermons appear to us to be rational, pious, and practical. The first, on ‘The Vanity of Human Life,’ from which the preacher is led by his text (Pl. xc. 12.) to exhort his hearers to apply their ‘hearts unto wisdom,’ is a little exceptionable, from the degrading light in which human nature is placed. The scope of his argument did not require it, and the representation is partial, and, we think, unjust. The inferences, however, and the address to the guardians of the Asylum are perfectly proper, and enforced with great energy.

The second Sermon, on ‘The Influence of Example,’ from Matth. v. 16. is, in our opinion, a very good one. It has

been censured, we find, as departing from that candour and charity which Mr. Hopkinson in the former discourse so much commended. But we find no reason for the accusation. In a literary view we may remark, that our author is much too minute in his quotations, and occasionally a little too incorrect in his language. The errors of the latter kind are, however, very few.

Ap[osto]lical Conceptions of God, being the second Part of an antecedent Publication. 8vo. 2s. Herdsfield.

In our XLIII^d volume, p. 228. we mentioned the first part of these Conceptions. The author continues to soar above our comprehension, and probably to many of his readers being equally dull, he is indebted for that polemical security which he seems to wonder at.

An impartial Inquiry into the present State of Religion in England. By Samuel King. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons.

Mr. King's Enquiry into the State of Religion leads him to explain what religion is; and we find it to consist, in his opinion, in the doctrines of Mr. Wesley. Of course, true religion, if any where to be found, is within the pale of his sect. But unfortunately there are some doubts of its existence even among the initiated.

Reflections on Faith, 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

These calm, candid Reflections, are dedicated to Dr. Horsley and Dr. Priestley. They are truly Christian; for they lead to benevolence, peace, charity, and good-will.

Meditations, chiefly for Women in Pregnant Circumstances. 8vo. 1s. Richardson.

We cannot greatly approve of Meditations which continually bring before the mind of pregnant women the impending danger. They should be rather comforted with the very great probability of escape, and every cheerful view should be encouraged; for, in this situation, they are naturally solicitous, and often unreasonably timid.

Essays on several religious Subjects. By Joseph Milner, A. M. 8vo. 2s. Dilly.

If we have ever passed over the tracts of the Methodists with the general censure of their containing the cant of a sect, it is because the greater number of the authors of this class, instead of defending their peculiar tenets, or coolly reasoning on those parts which they wish to support, borrow arguments from internal illumination, and dress them in all the extravagance which the warmest imagination can dictate. Mr. Milner was by no means free from this fault in his examination of Mr. Gibbon, which he led us to recollect, by mentioning our criticism on it, in September, 1781. In the Essays before us he is more calm and rational; he explains the tenets of Methodism, and

and proceeds to examine some other religious subjects. The principal tracts are in answer to some of Mr. Ludlam's Theological Essays, concerning the influence of the Holy Spirit.

To engage in discussions in defence of, or in opposition to, Methodism (we mean not to use the term offensively), is certainly out of our track. Since the days of Dr. Clarke, the opinions of the church of England have greatly changed; and the former articles have been often doubted of, and not unfrequently opposed, in the pulpit and in separate publications, by clergymen of the first character and abilities. Were we to engage with each of these authors, and reply to their arguments, our Review would not contain the theological works only. It is enough to observe and to distinguish their several merits in general; and we can now add, that Mr. Milner still perseveres in his former principles, but reasons with more coolness and, we think, with more accuracy than before. Yet his arguments are still far from being conclusive.

Scripture Characters; or, a practical Improvement of the principal Histories in the Old Testament, from Adam to Joshua inclusive. By T. Robinson, M. A. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Dilly.

In this little practical volume Mr. Robinson delineates the different characters of the patriarchs and some other distinguished persons of the Old Testament. He purposed to examine, in the same manner, the characters of those who are mentioned in other parts of the Old Testament, and in the New; but the undertaking is too extensive to be accomplished at present. Under each character, he takes occasion to recommend every trait of virtue and religion, and to dissuade his hearers, for those Characters were first delivered from the pulpit, from following the examples of immorality and impiety, which are occasionally found in the sacred history.

Parochialia; or, Instructions to the Clergy in the Discharge of their Parochial Duty, By the late right rev. Thomas Wilson. 12mo. 2s. Dilly.

Maxims of Piety and of Christianity. By the late right rev. Thomas Wilson, D. D. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Dilly.

These excellent little works of the late venerable bishop of Sodor and Man cannot be too often published, or brought too easily within the reach of every purse. We must consequently approve of republications of this kind.

The Christian Officer's Panoply: containing Arguments in favour of a Divine Revelation, By a Marine Officer. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Matthews.

The author's piety will cover a multitude of sins; and this familiar Socratic dialogue may be essentially useful. We recommend, therefore, this 'Panoply,' not only to the author's brethren of the marines, but to the army and navy in general.

A Review

A Review of the Debate now in Agitation amongst the Baptists in the West of England; on the Subject of Unscriptural Prayers and Doxologies. 8vo. 3d. Johnston.

This is rather a history than a review; for we cannot call that reviewer a brother, who is manifestly of one party, and who descends from the office of an historian, to enter the lists as a combatant. But we ought to add, that he does not appear to be deficient in candour and abilities.

A Letter to the Rev. Mr. Camb Evans, M. A. By William Huntington, S. S. 8vo. 1s 6d. Terry.

It is not easy to give an account of a continued commentary on an unpublished work: besides Mr. Huntington (what can S. S. after his name mean?) is one of the elect; and these gentlemen sometimes rise above the conceptions of common understandings. The original ground of dispute seems to have been some expressions of Mr. Evans' respecting our author, when he once preached at Bristol.

Observations on some of Mr. Thomas's Remarks on Mr. Bradford's Reflections upon the Baptist Circular Letter, dated at Aukester, in June, 1786. By J. Tomkies. 12mo. 9d. sewed. Robinsons.

Mr. Bradford's Reflections on the Baptist Circular Letter called for some remarks from Mr. Thomas, and Mr. Tomkies has replied. The merits of each party we cannot easily ascertain: it seems to be a local dispute, carried on without any great display of abilities or learning on either side.

A Vindication of a Printed Letter addressed to the Calvinistic Baptists of the Western Association, on the Subject of Doxologies; from the Remarks of a Member of the Western Association. By a Baptist. 8vo. 3d. Johnston.

This Vindication refers to one of those polemical disputes in a remote corner, from which literature, and we fear religion, can derive little benefit. We have already glanced at the subject; but a glance only convinced us that our readers will obtain little advantage by our pursuing it.

M E D I C A L.

Observations on the Nature and Properties of Fixible Air, and on the salutary Effects of the Aqua Salubris, in preserving Health, and preventing Diseases. By John Melvill, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Newbery.

Dr. Melvill employed the mephitic water, which he calls aqua salubris, in his own complaint, a troublesome chronic rheumatism, with success. This led him to farther enquiries and more extensive trials. He thinks the rheumatism, gout, gravel, stone, scurvy, and many other chronic complaints,

plaints, as well as some acute ones, are owing to a deficiency of fixable air in the system; and that 'elementary fixable air is the preserving invigorating principle of health and strength in every living creature.' This opinion differs, in many respects, from those usually entertained, particularly so far as it respects the gout; but facts must at last determine, and to these we must refer. Our author has received benefit from the mephitic water, and he has benevolently recommended it. We must confess that we should have paid more attention to his opinions, if he had not advertised it for sale.

Medical Essays. I. An Essay on the Principles and Manners of the Medical Profession. II. An Enquiry into the Merits of Solvents for the Stone. With Additions. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Doddsley.

We have examined these Essays in our LVth volume, p. 239. and in our List, p. 393. respectively. Some additions are, it is said, made to each; but the author's sentiments, so far as we recollect, are not materially altered: indeed the title only appears to be new. They are written by Mr. Newman of the Corporation of Surgeons.

An Essay on the Preservation of the Health of Persons employed in Agriculture, and on the Cure of Diseases incident to that Way of Life. By W. Falconer, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

In our LXVth volume, p. 456. we shortly mentioned this Essay as it appeared in the fourth volume of the Letters and Papers of the Bath Society. We are glad to see that so useful a work is republished in this commodious form.

N O V E L S.

The Triumphs of Fortitude, a Novel, in a Series of Letters. In 2 Vols. 5s. Richardson.

Some very young lady seems to have 'dipped her fingers' in ink for the first time. Her production contains much romantic love, little probability, and less interest.—Fye, miss! indeed these pretty fingers may be better employed.

The Man of Benevolence. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Hughes and Walfsh.

The exertion of Benevolence procures the hero a rich and amiable wife—The reader will not want the application of the fable; 'Go, and do thou likewise.' In other respects this novel scarcely rises above mediocrity.

Darnley Vale; or, Emilia Fitzroy, a Novel, by Mrs. Bonbote, Author of the Parental Monitor, &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Lane.

This is a very interesting and pleasing novel; it may be placed in the first rank, and probably might be arranged at an equal distance from the first and the last of that rank. The author, particularly towards the conclusion, steps too nearly in the steps of Cecilia. The whole, we have said, is pleasing and interesting; and we may add also, that the story is well conducted, strictly moral, and unfolded with skill,

Harriet

Harriet and Sophia; or, the Test of Love: including several entertaining and affecting Narratives, never before made public. Written by a Lady of Distinction. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Allen.

We remember the substance of these narratives, which, instead of being included in one story, are independent of each other. We do not know what kind of 'distinction' the lady who wrote, or more properly transcribed them, deserves; but in the republic of letters it is not a very honourable one.

The Modern Husband, a Novel, in a Series of Letters, by the Author of Lucinda Osborn. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Bateman.

If an author has written a novel, be it good or bad, praised or blamed, it is now the fashion to characterise herself, for, as in this instance, most of the novel writers are females, by her former production. The young lady, who wrote Lucinda Osborn, is now, we suspect, married; and, from an *innocent* girl, seems to have become a good and *experienced* wife (Critical Review, vol. LXIII. p. 226.) But we would advise her to practise the virtues of Mrs. Bouverie, rather than describe them, and emulate the pleasing cheerfulness and discreet taciturnity of Mrs. Wentworth, instead of framing adventures to bring these qualities forward to public notice. In the former line, she may become estimable; in the latter, she never will be famous.

Rosenberg, a Legendary Tale, by a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Lane.

From the title of this tale, professedly *legendary*, we were led to expect that the imagination and the fancy would be more attended to than the judgment, and that the wonderful would be more predominant than the probable. We were not greatly deceived; yet the imagination is strongly and forcibly interested, particularly in the tale of the Haunted Castle. Perhaps the cold hand is too nearly allied to a similar incident, in the Fragment of Sir Bertram, and the murderer's neglect of the valuable furniture of the house not very satisfactorily accounted for. But, notwithstanding these, and a few similar errors, the young lady's tale is interesting and amusing: the wilder horrors astonish; and the more familiar scenes entertain us.

The Test of Honour. By a Young Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Abraham.

This little story is related in an artless style; but we cannot compliment the young lady on what appears to be her first attempt. There is little to commend in the conduct of the plot, or in the delineation of characters. The whole is generally trifling, and frequently improbable.

The Countess of Hennebon, an historical Novel, in 3 Vols. By the Author of the Priory of St. Bernard. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Lane.

We have stretched our recollection of the situation of different parts of France to the utmost bent, without being able to fix on one spot where Hennebon can be situated, consistently with

with the events of the story. We have owned our predilection for historical novels; chiefly because the idle readers of these works might, in this way, have some remote chance of information. But, where history and geography are so repeatedly violated; where probability can scarcely be found; where names and titles are constantly mutilated and disfigured, the whole must be pronounced contemptible.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Review of the Life, Character, and Writings of the Rev. John Biddle, M. A. who was banished to the Isle of Scilly, in the Protectorate of Oliver Cromwell. By Joshua Toulmin, A. M. 12mo. 2s. in Boards. Johnson.

Mr. Biddle was the father of the Unitarians in this kingdom; and Mr. Toulmin, who wrote the Life of Socinus, has become his biographer, on the same principles, probably, which led him to his former biographical work, and to some other Socinian discussions. He is eager to tell us that Mr. Biddle declared his sentiments to have been derived from the Bible, without having been taken from any Socinian work. We have no doubt that tenets of every kind may be derived from the Bible, for the purest fountain may be changed by the channel through which it passes; and, if the purity of Socinianism be boasted, we must confess, that to us the New Testament holds out a very different doctrine. Mr. Biddle was persecuted by the ecclesiastical powers of that period; and these were Presbyterians: for this sect, when in power, was not very tolerant.

‘In the course of the contest, the Presbyterians, for a few years, gained the superiority. All those measures were then right, which before they felt to be unjust and oppressive; because now they were used in the cause of God and truth. Power blinded and corrupted them, as it had done before the Episcopalians. An ecclesiastical hierarchy, in every nation, in every age, under all civil revolutions, has been inimical to truth, and a bar to reformation.’—

—‘It is an honour to the English Protestant Dissenters of this day, and a ground of devout thankfulness, that Presbyterianism hath no existence among them. They who, very improperly, are called Presbyterians, as consistent Protestants, and as genuine advocates for liberty, have no rivals, and but few equals.’

There is undoubtedly a difference in the tenets between the Presbyterians of that period, who were generally Calvinists, and the Dissenters of this day; but it remains to be proved, whether there is any change in their disposition; and probably the possession of power will not bring this change to the test.

On the whole, this Life of Mr. Biddle is a very respectable work: Mr. Toulmin gives a short abstract of his sufferings and his writings. He was evidently able, zealous, and disinterested;

ed; but his zeal hurried him into difficulties; and his abilities excited opposition, which we fear did not, in the end, promote the cause of religion.

Authentic Copy of the Proceedings of a General Court Martial, held at the Horse Guards on Friday the 26th of June, 1789, on Hugh Debbieg, Esq. on three Charges exhibited by his Grace Charles Duke of Richmond, &c. 4to. 2s. Debrett.

The charges exhibited by the duke of Richmond against colonel Debbieg were, First, For writing to him, the commanding officer, a letter containing disrespectful expressions towards him, and imputations of ignorance and neglect of his duty as master-general of the ordnance, to the prejudice of good order and military discipline: Secondly, For having caused to be published a letter addressed to the same nobleman, and imputing to him a system "only calculated to invite the enemy into the very bosom of Great Britain." And Thirdly, For having made public his opinions, relative to the defences of the kingdom, contrary to his duty as an officer. Colonel Debbieg was found guilty, by the court-martial, of each of the charges above mentioned, and was adjudged to be suspended of pay and duty, as a colonel of the corps of Royal Engineers, for the space of six calendar months.

A Companion in a Tour round Lymington: comprehending a brief Account of that Place and its Environs. By Richard Warner, Jun. Small 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Faulder.

We have read this short description of Lymington, Southampton, New Forest, Christchurch, and the Isle of Wight, with great pleasure. The author has drawn the antiquarian researches from the best sources, and displays no little information and learning. It would not be very advantageous or profitable to follow him particularly, as many parts of this Tour, and the history of many of the objects, is well known.

We may however remark, that in our examination of ancient fortresses, we have often found apparently Roman remains different in some respects from the pure Roman models. Mr. Warner finds a similar difficulty, in p. 21. We have usually accounted for it, by supposing that the Roman fortresses had in future times been in the possession of Danes and Saxons, who had either altered or added to the intrenchments which they found; and this we think more probable than to suppose that the generals who served in Britain departed from their usual plans, when there seemed no variety of circumstances to account for such a variation. Some of Mr. Warner's etymologies are not, we think, well supported, particularly that relating to Ambrosius. It may also be doubted how far good policy would support parliament in assisting the salt-works at Lymington, while, by the same means, it would injure those
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at Nampwich, &c. which have at least an equal claim to its protection. These are trifling blemishes: a few others of a similar kind might be mentioned; but they do not greatly detract from the merit of this little work, or induce us to lessen the character we have already given of it.

The Royal Tour to Weymouth, and Places adjacent, in the Year 1789. Communicated by the Brace of White Greyhounds. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway.

This though the first will probable not be the last squib on his majesty's Western Tour. These greyhounds seem to forget their honest nature, and fawn a little too servilely on the prince.

Further Remarks on two of the most singular Characters of the Age. By the Author of the Critique on the Conduct of the Rev. John Crosse, Vicar of Bradford, and the Rev. William Atkinson, Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge. 8vo. 2s. Debreit.

In our XLVIIth volume, p. 479, we noticed the Poetical Essays of the rev. Mr. William Atkinson, and remarked that a second edition had appeared before we had seen the first. 'Trim,' our brother Reviewer, criticised these Essays, and has explained to us the circumstance which we could not account for: it seems to have been no uncommon piece of authorship to assist the heavy sale of a large impression; but this critique has never reached us. These further Remarks contain some very severe reprehensions of the conduct of the vicar of Bradford and Mr. Atkinson. Trim writes with shrewdness and with spirit; but, at this distance from the scene, we cannot ascertain the justice or the propriety of the accusation. We hope, for the credit of the clergy, our critic has been misinformed, or is mistaken: yet, if these things are so, thus should they be reprehended.

A Companion to the Leasowes, Hagley, and Enville; with a Sketch of Fisherswick, the Seat of the Right Hon Earl Donegall. To which is prefixed, the present State of Birmingham. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons.

This little Sketch gives a description of the beautiful scenes which Shensstone and Lyttelton planned, and which, in the hands of the present possessors, have been somewhat altered. We perceive, however, no material variation, from the state in which we visited them twenty years since. The other scenes described will be sufficiently understood from the title. But what shall we say of Birmingham, 'the grand toy-shop of Europe,' the spot where art, ingenuity, and mechanism, have united to dazzle and astonish the world? Its population is fifteen times as great as it was a century ago; but its poor-rate, our author tells us, amounts to thirty times the sum collected at the same period!

A Short System of Polite Learning. Adapted for Schools. 2vo, 2s. 6d. Bent.

We have looked over this little work, and find no objection of importance, except to the title. We fear that the arts and sciences are not in so great estimation, among the higher ranks, that the elements can be styled a 'System of polite Learning.' In other respects, the explanations are perspicuous, familiar, and sufficiently correct: we cannot compliment the author on perfect accuracy; but we have discovered no injurious errors.

The Culture of Forests; with an Appendix, in which the State of the Royal Forests is considered, and a System proposed for their Improvement. By Lieut. Col. A. Emmerich. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Printed for the Author.

We think col. Emmerich's work, in many respects, an interesting and useful one. His directions for sowing and transplanting trees; his plan for the management of forests, and his urgent recommendations for restoring and repairing the ruined state of the forests of this kingdom, we know to be in general just, and we believe them to be equally salutary. Our author's language, even with the assistance of Mr. Cullen, is sometimes inaccurate; but all the defects and errors will probably be supplied and corrected in his projected larger work.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

'VIR MEDICUS' seems to be nearly related to 'Homo Medicus,' who applied to us some time since, and by the same conveyance sent a letter of a similar purport to another Review, from whom we had differed greatly on the subject of his letter. His compliments and his attention were, of course, suspicious, and we declined any farther connexion. Even in the present instance, we can only say, that our edition of Tralles' *Usus Opii* is in four thin volumes quarto, published at Breslaw in 1774, 1777, 1782, and 1784 respectively. The three first volumes are a second edition enlarged; the preface we alluded to is in the last volume. We forget the price we paid for it; but believe it cannot be procured, except by accident, without sending purposely for it to Germany.

AS we have not at present Mr. Gregory's work in our hands, we cannot ascertain the fact relating to the note; but we greatly mistake if some hint of Chatterton's having received the pernicious lessons of infidelity from these authors is not added. We are sorry to find our Numbers so scarce or so little known; but we cannot at present add to the information contained in them. We can no longer doubt of Mr. Gregory's intentions and opinion, after his assurances; but it is a little remarkable that, when he had strongly enforced some weak arguments in favour of Chatterton's claim, he should have omitted to mention his trials to give parchment the appearance of antiquity,



THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For DECEMBER, 1789.

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXIX. For the Year 1789. Part I. 4to. 7s. 6d. saved: L. Davis.

THIS volume has been delayed either in the publication or in its progress to our hands; and the smallness of its bulk inspires some fears that indolence has succeeded to activity, and a calm repose to exertion. Let us hope, however, that the labours of the Society sink only to rebound, and that their importance will compensate for the minuteness of the volume.

Art. I. Description of an Improvement in the Application of the Quadrant of Altitude. By Mr. J. Smeaton, F. R. S. communicated by Mr. W. Wales, F. R. S.—Mr. Smeaton's appears to us a real improvement, and may enable the globes better 'to fulfil their design in general.' We are not so sanguine respecting their use as Mr. Smeaton appears to be; but, as he sees them in their most perfect form, and with the newest improvements, we ought not to controvert his opinions.

Art II. Objections to the Experiments and Observations relating to the Principle of Acidity, the Composition of Water, and Phlogiston considered; with farther Experiments and Observations on the same Subject. By the Rev. J. Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S.—Dr. Priestley's third paper on this subject contains answers to different objections which have been made to his experiments and observations. It was observed, that the acid procured might come from the phlogificated air, which in one process could not be excluded, and Mr. Cavendish had already procured nitrous acid by repeated explosions of phlogificated and dephlogificated air, by means of the electrical spark. To this objection Dr. Priestley answers, that Mr. Cavendish's mode is slow; his own rapid, by ignition, a process by which phlogificated air was not affected, for he found, after uniting the dephlogificated and inflammable airs, the phlogificated was left unchanged. Besides, the phlogiston of the last may be evolved and combined with pure air, by the slow process of electricity, as it is from inflammable air by ignition, in consequence of which the water, in both instances, is precipitated. With this view he repeated the experiment, and found

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the phlogificated air left unchanged: with common air, in which there was more phlogificated air, scarcely any acid was produced. When this last experiment and some others, where little acid was found, were repeated, the acid appeared in a state of vapour, and was discovered to be fixed air. From hence the following conclusion was drawn, which we suspect must yet be received with some reserve: 'when either inflammable or dephlogificated air is extracted from any substance in contact with the other kind of air, so that one of them is made to unite with the other, in what may be called its *nascent state*, the result will be *fixed air*, but, if both of them be completely formed before their union, the result will be *nitrous acid*.'

It has been also objected, that the fixed air procured came from the plumbago in the iron from which the inflammable air was extracted; but the fixed air far exceeded the weight of the plumbago (sometimes it was three times as much), and, with tin also, inflammable air was produced. In the former experiments the fixed air did not sometimes appear; but with more attention to the necessary circumstances it is now always found. Our author endeavoured to obtain inflammable air from sulphur, but by adding turbit mineral, could only obtain vitriolic acid * air; from hence he concludes, that sulphur is not the simple substance which the antiphlogistians suppose, but that it always contains phlogiston. Phosphorus too, accounted a simple substance by the new theorists, converts pure air into aerial acid, when burned in it: but there is no plumbago in phosphorus. Dr. Priestley, in the conclusion of this paper, replies to some of the observations of the French academicians in their 'Report.' They assert that their new doctrine is gaining ground; but we shall soon have occasion to show that this is not the case even on the continent, and in England: Priestley, Cavendish, and Kirwan are its opponents.

'There is, says Dr. Priestley, (alluding to the experiment with the finery cinder) I acknowledge, a great difficulty in explaining the experiment of iron first imbibing water, and parting with phlogiston, and again parting with its water, and imbibing phlogiston, in circumstances of heat so nearly similar as those which I have described. It seems as if the affinity of iron to water and to phlogiston was each, in their turns, stronger than the other. To this I can only say, that the whole doctrine of affinities, as far as it is true, is founded on facts; and these are clearly such as I have represented; and that a difference of circumstances, which is not apparent at present, may become so when we shall have given sufficient attention to them.

'In order to satisfy myself whether any thing besides water

* May not this fact account for the result of M. Westrumb's Experiments on Vegetable Acids, recorded in our Foreign Intelligence of this Number?

was expelled from finery cinder by heat, I went through similar processes with this substance and massicot, from which all air had been previously expelled; and after reviving both of them in inflammable air, I found the results, in all respects, the very same. The residuums of the inflammable air were equally free from fixed air; and when they were fired with equal quantities of dephlogisticated air, the diminutions of bulk were very nearly the same, less than when the original inflammable air was used, because all the impurities in the whole quantity were retained in a small residuum, the metals having imbibed nothing but pure phlogiston. Also the inflammable air had been long confined by water, in consequence of which it is always altered more or less.

We may perhaps add that, in the experiments with the electrical machine, in igniting the two kinds of air, the force seems greatest on the lower part of the tube, which dilates and soon bursts; this Dr. Priestley explains, by supposing that the spark expands the air in the upper part, and, of course, condenses it in the lower, where consequently the heat and the force appears to be greatest.

Art. III. Observations on the Class of Animals, called by Linnæus Amphibia; particularly on the Means of distinguishing those Serpents which are venomous, from those which are not so. By E. W. Gray, M. D. P. R. S.—In the class of amphibia, Mr. Gray considers, we think with reason, Linnæus as unusually hasty, and peculiarly unfortunate. The amphibianes are not furnished with lungs; and, on that account, foreign naturalists, as we have lately observed in that department of our work, have removed the cartilaginous fishes to the pisces. A single ventricle is also not the most common structure, for the hearts of the amphibia are usually double, with an aperture between the ventricles, analogous to the foramen ovale of the fœtus. The distinction is, however, as Mr. Gray acknowledges, pretty complete, by the character of having cold red blood, and being furnished with lungs.

The distinction between the poisonous genera and the others, has not yet been properly pointed out; and we suspect the terrors of ignorant persons have in some respects influenced naturalists. In one or two instances our author seems to have been misled by these impressions. His distinctions are taken from the shape of the head, of the tail, and the situation of the teeth. A broad head covered with small scales, though not a certain criterion, he thinks, with a few exceptions, is a general character of venomous serpents. A tail under one-fifth of the length is another, though not without exceptions; but a tail, longer in proportion, is a pretty certain mark that the animal is innocent. A thin acute tail is not, on the whole, peculiar to

the venomous class; but a thick obtuse one is only found among the innoxious ones: carinated scales are in some measure a mark of the poisonous tribe. The fangs of the poisonous sort are not always, or perhaps essentially, moveable: their size is various, and they are generally situated in the anterior and exterior part of the upper jaw, not connected with a row of teeth all round. Venomous serpents have only two rows of teeth, and the innoxious ones have four. The number of venomous serpents is perhaps about one in six.

Art. IV. Observations on the Dryness of the Year 1788. In a Letter from the Rev. Mr. B. Hutchinson, to Sir J. Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—At Kimbolton (in Huntingdonshire) the mean quantity of rain for seven years was 25 inches, but in 1788 it was only 14.5. We perceive, from the journal at the end, that in London it was only 14.9 nearly; and we should not indeed expect a very great difference at a distance so inconsiderable. The last year was confessedly a fruitful one; and our author endeavours to explain it by showing, that the rain fell at the time when it may be supposed to have been most serviceable to the corn and the fruits.

Art. V. On the Method of determining from the real Probabilities of Life, the Value of a contingent Reversion in which Three Lives are involved in the Survivorship. By Mr. William Morgan; communicated by the Rev. R. Price, D.D. F. R. S.—This is the supplement of a former paper on this subject. Mr. Morgan informs us, that on pursuing the subject farther, he finds that, as it is never safe, so it can never be necessary to have recourse to the *expectations* of life in any case; and that the solution of problems, which include three lives, is far from being so formidable as it appears. His supplement chiefly consists of the solution of the following problem:

‘Supposing the ages of A, B, and C to be given, to determine, from any table of observations, the value of the sum S, payable on the contingency of C’s surviving B, provided the life of A shall be then extinct.’

Simpson’s value of 100l. payable on the contingent of this problem appears, from this solution, to be very erroneous.

Art. VI. Result of Calculations of the Observations made at various Places of the Eclipse of the Sun, which happened on June 3, 1788. By the Rev. Joseph Piazzi, C. R. Professor of Astronomy in the University of Palermo; communicated by N. Maskelyne, D.D. F. R. S. and Astronomer Royal.—The differences of longitude, in various places, deduced from these observations are very important, and we may be allowed to extract the table so far as relates to this subject:

• Greenwich

‘ Difference of meridians.

‘ Greenwich, Dr. Maskelyne,	—	0	
Loampit-Hill, Mr. Aubert,	—	0	3'', 2 W.
Oxford, Dr. Hornsby,	—	5'	1, 1 W.
Dublin, Dr. Usher,	—	25	13, 4 W.
Mittau, M. Beidler,	—	1h. 34	54, 2 E.
Berlin, M. Bode,	—	0	53 33 E.
Vienna, M. Triefneker,	—	1	5 31, 5 E.
Viviers, M. Flaugerguas,	—	18	41, 7 E.
Perinaldo, M. Maraldi,	—	30	53, 0 E.
Rouen, M. Du Lagne,	—	4	22, 3 E.
Paris,	—	9	19, 3
Milan, Mess. de Cesaris and Reggio,	—	36	37, 4 E.
Bologna, M. Matteucci,	—	45	28 E.
Padua, M. Chiminello,	—	47	34 E.
Warsaw, M. Bystrzycki,	—	1 24	12, E.
Prague, M. Strnad,	—	0	57 42, 7 E.
Marseilles, M. Bernard,	—	0	21 30, 2 E.
Cresmunster, M. Fixlmillner,	—	0	56 11, 7 E.
Bagdad, M. de Beauchamp,	—	2 57	23, 7 E.'

Art. VII. An Account of a bituminous Lake or Plain in the Island of Trinidad. By Mr. Alexander Anderfon; communicated by Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—The island Trinidad is between Tobago and the Spanish Main. The lake consists of petroleum of an uncertain depth, on a spot pretty certainly volcanic. It hardens and forms by retraction, areolæ not unlike those on the back of a turtle: in fact, it is a tarred spot, whose little hollows are occasionally filled with water; and, where the heat is concentrated by the woods, the tar is liquid. Hot springs abound in the neighbourhood, 22 or 24 degrees hotter than the atmosphere, probably about 100 degrees of Fahrenheit. The island is covered with argillaceous earth, and the mountains are composed of schistus argillaceus, and talcum lythomargo. Our author's theory of the formation of the island is only a theory of its increase, from the effects of the currents into the gulf of Paria from the coasts of Brazil and Andalusia, and the consequent eddies: it is of much less value than his observations.

VIII. An Account of a particular Change of Structure in the human Ovarium. By M. Baillie, M. D.; communicated by J. Hunter, Esq. F. R. S.—Dr. Baillie, in this paper, as well as in his former one, attempts to say something new; but it is to us unintelligible. It is sufficient to remark, that the hair and teeth found in this case in the ovary, were wholly and decidedly independent of impregnation, but to say that, in given circumstances, ‘ the ovary may have an aptitude of tak-

ing on a process, somewhat similar to generation,' may appear to be philosophical, though they are in reality, words without meaning. We might philosophize nonsensically in our turn, and speak of the vegetable nature of hair and teeth,' but we would not trifle with our readers; and we shall confess, that the case is wholly unintelligible, unless we suppose a confusion of two fœtuses, where the most incorruptible parts remain, and from their vegetative nature, increase to a magnitude which has attracted attention. This, though the more probable hypothesis, we cannot recommend as deserving a moment's notice; it has not, however, detained us long.

Art. IX. Some Account of the Vegetable and Mineral Productions of Boutan and Thibet. By Mr. Robert Saunders, Surgeon at Boglepoor in Bengal; communicated by Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—This journey is in many respects curious; and has afforded us information and entertainment. The country from Bahar to Buxaduar is flat, marshy, and unwholesome; but at Buxaduar, lat. $26^{\circ} \frac{1}{2}$, the thermometer falls almost to our summer heat, and the Bengal plants require nursing: it was never above 82° or below 73° . The rains were incessant, and this part of the country appears to be unhealthy. The country contains quartz resembling marble, sparry flint, and granite; and, in the progress northward, Mr. Saunders met with European plants and European heats. From Chouka to Panuka there is much lime-stone, which the natives know not the use of. At Chepta, about the latter end of May, the neighbouring mountain Lomya was covered with snow, and the thermometer was at 57° . Chalk and lime-stone again occur, with chalybeate springs, in their way to Tassafudon, the capital of Boutan, in lat. $27^{\circ} 43'$, from major Rennel's map. This country is, in general, fruitful, and seems to be filled with European plants, for the neighbouring mountains are almost constantly covered with snow. They have two crops annually; the one of wheat, the other, sowed in the rainy season, of rice: the minerals are chiefly iron, with a very little copper:

'Here (on the mountains near the source of the Pachu) we quit the boundary of Boutan, and enter the territory of Thibet, where nature has drawn the line still more strongly, and affords, perhaps, the most extraordinary contrast that takes place on the face of the earth. From this eminence are to be seen the mountains of Boutan, covered with trees, shrubs, and verdure to their tops, and on the south side of this mountain, to within a few feet of the ground on which we tread. On the north side the eye takes in an extensive range of hills and

and plains, but not a tree, shrub, or scarce a tuft of grass to be seen. Thus, in the course of less than a mile, we bid adieu to a most fertile soil, covered with perpetual verdure, and enter a country where the soil and climate seem inimical to the production of every vegetable. The change in the temperature of the air is equally obvious and rapid. The thermometer in the forenoon 34° , with frost and snow in the night-time. Our present observations on the cause of this change confirmed us in a former opinion, and incontestably prove, that we are not to look for that difference of climate from the situation of the ground as more or less above the general level of the earth. In attending to this cause of heat or cold, we must not allow ourselves to be deceived by a comparison with that which is immediately in view. We ought to take in a greater range of country, and where the road is near the banks of a river, we cannot well err in forming a judgement of the inclination of the ground. Punukha and Wandepore, both to the northward of Tassafudon, are quite in a Bengal climate. The thermometer at the first of these places, in the months of July and January, was within two degrees of what it had been at Rungpore for the same periods. They seem in more exposed situations than Tassafudon; and, were we to draw a comparison of their heights from the surrounding ground, I should say they were above its level. The road, however, proves the reverse. From Punukha to Tassafudon we had a continued and steep ascent for six hours and a half, with a very inconsiderable descent on the Tassafudon side. From the south side of the mountain dividing Boutan from Thibet, the springs and rivulets are tumbling down in cascades and torrents, and have been traced by us near to the foot of the hills, where they empty themselves to the eastward of Buxaduar. On the north side they glide smoothly along, and by passing to the northward as far as Tishoolumboo, prove a descent on that side, which the eye could not detect. This part of the country, being the most elevated, is at all times the coldest: and the snowy mountains, from their heights and bearings, notwithstanding the distance, are certainly those seen from Purnea.

‘The soil on the Thibet side of the mountain is sandy, with much gravel and many loose stones.’

In these higher grounds lakes containing alum and the mineral alkali were not uncommon: the wind from the south-east blowing over the desert just mentioned, is cold, piercing, and almost equal to the harmattan in dryness. When they proceed farther into the dominions of the Delai Lama, they find the sky serene, and the country fertile; the minerals rich, plentiful, and frequent, particularly gold; lead, containing much silver; and a very rich cinnabar. Rock-salt and borax are known to be

productions of this part of the world: the tincal is chiefly found, it is said, on the borders and shallowest parts of the lake, for the middle affords rock-salt. The thermometer at Tiffolumboo, during the month of October, was 38° at eight in the morning, 46° at noon, and 42° at six in the evening: the weather was clear, cool, and pleasant; the prevailing wind from south. November was frosty, but clear and serene; the thermometer from 30° to 38° . The goitre is a common disease at the foot of the mountains; but our author allows, and supports his opinion by facts which occur in India, that the snow-water has no influence on the complaint.

The diseases are chiefly inflammatory, though they are acquainted with the small-pox, which they greatly dread, the liver complaint, and with the venereal disease. The last they cure with mercury, which they probably learnt from the Persians. Alum, nitre, vermilion, and quicksilver, are calcined together, and make seemingly an efficacious medicine; but the Persians were acquainted with the method of killing quicksilver, though we suspect they only used it in that way for external use. Their system of materia medica seems, on the whole, so conformable to that of the Persians, that we have reason to believe they borrowed or communicated it. On their return over the mountains, in December, the thermometer was often below 16° .

A postscript is added respecting the lac. The tree, which the insect is fond of, is said to be a species of rhamnus. The lac, which is the nidus of the egg, and the first food of the worm, is formed into cells, as regular as those of the honeycomb, but differently arranged. The egg is of a pure red, oval, and transparent, except where the embryo is, from whence opaque ramifications are spread in every direction. The maggot is one-eighth of an inch, with ten or twelve rings, a small red head, and six small specks on the breast, the rudiments of the future legs. Mr. Saunders has not seen the fly; but we may expect from him some farther information on the subject.

The meteorological journal, for 1788, concludes the volume. The mean heat is $50^{\circ}.6$; but the thermometer was at 80 only twice, once in May, and again in June, when it was evidently accidental. The mean heat of April is $52^{\circ}.6$, probably three degrees above the real standard heat. The mean height of the barometer was $29^{\circ}.96$; and the rain, as we have said, 14.9 inches nearly.

A Nar-

A Narrative of Four Journeys into the Country of the Hottentots, and Caffraria. In the years 1777, 8, and 9. Illustrated with a Map, and seventeen Copper-plates. By Lieut. William Paterfon. 4to. 18s. in Boards, plain; 1l. 11s. 6d. coloured. Johnson.

TO travel in these inhospitable wilds requires no common share of resolution, and our gratitude should be proportioned to the danger of the enterprize, and the necessary perseverance and spirit to conduct it. Mr. Paterfon's journeys were chiefly botanical ones, though he has described the different circumstances attending them with sufficient minuteness. In many respects, this tour is a supplement to Dr. Sparrman's Voyage, which we reviewed in our LXth volume, p. 321, &c. Our present author has gone over a part of the same ground, and has extended his journey to parts which Dr. Sparrman never reached. The map seems to be that of the Swedish traveller, corrected in some parts and filled up in others: we regret only that Mr. Paterfon's route is not always marked with sufficient accuracy, though this defect cannot be complained of in the new, and hitherto unexplored tracts.

Mr. Paterfon tells us, and he tells us what we find to be strictly true, that none of the common arts of compilation have been employed, for the few descriptions of animals in the notes taken from Dr. Sparrman, can scarcely be styled an exception. The fidelity of the observations, and the unadorned plainness of the narration prove this work to be a series of facts noted down on the 'spot,' which are 'recommended by the simple form of truth,' and their apparent accuracy.

Our author's first journey was to the eastward, nearly in Sparrman's tract. It commenced in October 1777, and extended from the Cape to Bier Valley, to the north and a little to the west of the source of Oliphants (Elephants) river. The source of that river is described as a beautiful and fertile spot. This valley is more than a degree to the north of Dr. Sparrman's most northern excursion in that longitude, and we perceive that Oliphants river trends less to the north and more to the west, than in the Swedish map. We find little else that we can add to our former description.

Mr. Paterfon's second journey, in the winter (August) of 1778, is much more new and interesting. He proceeded through the more internal parts of the peninsula, to the east of the first chain of mountains, finding hail and snow in the internal parts of Africa, in latitude 32 S. He seldom speaks of the different strata, occasionally indeed he talks of hills of sand, of clayey grounds, of soft stone, and of a reddish clay contain-

containing a quantity of saline matter. The general character is, we believe, sand and sand-stone, interspersed with patches of clay.

‘It is necessary (says he) to observe, that towards the interior parts of this country, or rather the centre of the peninsula, the country does not decline in a north-west direction, at least not in proportion to the immense mountains which progressively present themselves to view: for instance, though the ascent of the mountain called the Rogge Veld, is not less than two thousand feet from the Karo, the descent is not more than one thousand, before we come to a second, which appears of equal height with the former. In the detail of my journey through this country, it is my intention to pay a particular regard to this circumstance.’

The mountains abound in iron, contained, we suspect, in a matrix of quartz; and no inconsiderable quantities of copper; warm chalybeate springs are also frequently interspersed. In this tour lions were often heard and occasionally seen: the hippopotamus, the great object of Dr. Sparrman’s enquiry, seems frequently to have obtruded itself on their attention, though they neither pursued or examined it, except to defend themselves, or to procure it for food.

In this excursion, our author penetrated, we have said, far beyond the usual routes, beyond Orange river very near the 28th degree of latitude. To the east, he extended his journey so far as the mountains inhabited by Boshmen, whom we have described in our former article; but respecting whom, Mr. Paterfon gives us no new information. The ground, however, is so high, as to furnish rivers for the Atlantic and Indian ocean, and our author travelled from snow and ice, till he found the thermometer at 95°. Copper is the common mineral on the western coast; and wild beasts of the most ferocious kind its chief inhabitants. Yet Dutchmen and Germans are scattered in this very distant country, and are even found in the mountains among the bush Hottentots, preferring a scanty and precarious subsistence, surrounded with perils from the beasts or the more ferocious Boshmen, to the calm security, which, with a comfortable livelihood, a life of labour might procure in Europe. Their occupation is grazing; but the cattle are very unhealthy, probably from the numerous poisons of the vegetable world.

The third journey was directed to Caffraria. Our author went much farther eastward than his predecessor Dr. Sparrman. He goes nearly in his track, and steps quickly over what we may comparatively call frequented ground, till he comes to great Sunday’s river, the extent of Mr. Mason’s

journey, and Hapagni wood, the extent of Dr. Sparrman's journey eastward. Caffre Land, which lies to the east of this point, and is bounded on the west by great Fish river, was the object of our author's enquiries, and the scene of his botanical researches. The country on the unexplored western side of the river appears fertile, though no inhabitants were found except wild beasts. The palm, described by Mr. Ma-son in his second journey, of the pith of which the inhabitants make bread, is very common in this boundary of Caffre Land, and is often seen growing to twenty feet in height.

On crossing the river, the travellers entered a spacious plain, adorned with a great variety of evergreens, and various flowers in full bloom.

'After passing this extensive plain, we entered a wood about eight miles broad. In many places the trees were thinly scattered; in these openings we discovered numerous herds of buffaloes, which had not the least appearance of shyness; one of them we wounded. Soon after this we saw a herd of elephants about eighty in number, which approached so near to us, that we could observe the length and thickness of their teeth. After leaving the wood, we ascended a steep mountain, where we had a view of the Indian Ocean to the southward; and to the northward, a hilly country covered with trees and evergreen shrubs, which extended about thirty miles. The prospect was bounded by a range of mountains called the Bamboo Berg, on which grows a species of bamboo. To the east we had a view of a pleasant country decorated with great variety of plants. The country is here well watered, and produces excellent pasture for cattle. Towards the evening of the seventh, we observed a fire about ten miles to the eastward of us, upon the slope of a green hill. Our interpreter told us this was at a Caffree village. At sunset we discovered another much nearer, and saw several herds of cattle. About eight in the evening we met three of the Caffrees, who were much surprised at our appearance, as we were certainly the first Europeans they had ever seen. They speedily returned and alarmed the whole village before we arrived; but on our arrival they received us kindly, brought us milk, and offered us a fat bullock agreeably to their usual hospitable custom. This village consisted of about fifty houses, situate on the banks of a pleasant river called in the Caffree language, Mugu Ranie; and it belongs to their chief. It contained about three hundred inhabitants, all of whom were servants or soldiers to their chief, who was likewise the proprietor of the numerous herds of cattle. These people subsist on the milk of their cows, and on game, not being allowed to kill any of their cattle. The men milk the cows, and the women take care of the gardens and corn.'

They

They generally live on the banks of rivers, in patriarchal simplicity, with their cattle around them. The chief had one hundred cows and twenty-two servants, who generally attended him. He accepted some beads, but preferred his own tobacco, and offered the travellers a herd of fat bullocks. He seemed hurt on their refusing them.

'After a few words between us I accepted of one, which we immediately shot; this surprised all the spectators, who were about six hundred persons, few of them having ever seen a gun, or heard the report of one. We had a part of the bullock dressed, which I thought much superior to the beef near the Cape. The rest of the animal I distributed to the king and his servants. He still seemed displeased that I would accept of nothing more in return. I then asked him for some of their baskets, which he gave me, and also two of their lances or hassaguis, which they make with great ingenuity; but the construction of the baskets which are made by their women, is much more surprising; they are composed of grass, and woven so closely that they are capable of holding any fluid. Khouta, the chief, intreated me to remain with him a few days, this, however, we did not consent to; but after much persuasion agreed to stay all night. In the afternoon I ranged the neighbouring woods in search of plants, and at night returned to my companion, who stayed at the Beeha Cum (the river on which his house was built.) As the weather was hot, we chose to sleep in the woods rather than in any of the huts. During the night I observed that there were two guards placed on each side the door of the chief's house, who were relieved about every two hours.'

The men are said to be from five feet ten inches to six feet high; and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or beasts of prey.

'The colour of the Caffrees is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The cloathing of both sexes is nearly the same, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs, pieces of brass in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms; they are also adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers fastened on their heads, with many other fantastical ornaments. When they are about nine years of age they undergo the operation of being circumcised, and afterwards wear a muzzle of leather which covers the extremity of the penis, and is suspended by a leathern thong from their middle. This covering is in general ornamented with beads and brass rings, which they purchase from the Hottentots for tobacco and dacka. They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle, and to such a height do they carry this passion, that if one particularly pleases them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it.

Their

Their whole exercise through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances, and in time of war use shields made of the hides of oxen. The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate several vegetables which are not indigenous to their country, such as tobacco, water-melons, a small sort of kidney-beans, and hemp, none of which I found growing spontaneously. The women make their baskets, and the mats which they sleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in such a way as to be able to turn them into any shape they please, and teach them to answer a whistle. Some of them use an instrument for this purpose, similar to a Boshman's pipe. When they with their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the house and blow this small instrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and so constructed as to be heard at a great distance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty. The soil of this country is a blackish loomy ground, and so extremely fertile, that every vegetable substance, whether sown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance.

The fourth journey was again directed northward, and extended to latitude 28 deg. 33 min. where a new tribe of Hottentots was discovered. A little to the south the travellers turned eastward, and went in a north-easterly direction, so far as Kamisberg, part of the chain of mountains which they travelled over in their second journey, and some of the highest land in that district. From thence they went almost directly westward, till they came to the Atlantic ocean. The last house that they met with, is situated on a branch of the Kamisberg, in latitude 30 deg. and 2080 feet above the level of the sea. The direction from the mountain was nearly that of Couste or Sand river: the country consisted of sand, or a sandy clay; the water generally brackish; and the only marks of living creatures, the prints of lions feet and the dung of elephants. They afterwards proceeded northward, where they had often no water for two days, and what they occasionally found, except in one spot, was brackish and disagreeable. The whole was a sandy desert, with little vegetation, except near the fountain, till the travellers reached Orange river, called in the former maps Great river. Near this spot they found an ostrich's nest with thirty-six eggs. The Hottentots which they discovered, were only eleven in number, and yet they had a chief. Their huts were more lofty and convenient than usual, but in other respects they were the most dirty and miserable tribe that has been discovered of this race. Putrid fish, when fish is thrown on shore, seems a delicacy, for they remove their huts to this spot. They ate, apparently

parently with good appetite, some old shoes, which the Hottentots, who attended on our author and colonel Gordon, gave them, food which their own Hottentots did not disdain in time of need.

Those are the principal or most interesting circumstances which we can collect from the journey: what relates to natural history we shall mention after we have given some account of the Appendix. The first part contains meteorological observations made at the Cape from May 22d to November 18th, of 1778, the winter and spring of the antarctic regions. On the 30th of May we perceive the thermometer to have been at 45 deg. but its usual range was from 50 to 60. About the beginning of June its range was nearly the same; and towards the end it vibrated from 43 to 48. In July it varied much between 40 and 60: in August it sunk lower: on the second and seventh it was at 30; yet on the twentieth it was at 67 deg. and through the whole of the latter part of the month, it was from 40 to 60. In September it rose often to 80 and even to 95; though once in the morning it was at 60. In October and November it was very variable, sometimes below 50, and at others above 70. The weather was usually fair, though often cloudy. The winds almost constantly N. W.; sometimes indeed S. E.; occasionally, though very seldom, N. and in November, sometimes S. W.

The two next parts of the Appendix contain pretty accurate accounts of the animal and vegetable poisons of Africa and the East Indies. The poisonous animals are described by the common, and not by the scientific names. The Bramin's pills our author has found successful in bites of the Indian snakes: their effects are those of a very inflammatory and intoxicating stimulus.

The plates are well executed. The first represents the *amarillis disticha*, a plant used for the poisoning points of arrows by the Hottentots. The *aloe dichotoma*, a very curious species of aloe, which seems to be common in the northern parts of the peninsula, and whose peculiarity consists in the divided leaf, is represented in four different plates. An *hermannia* and *stapelia*, plants, which we find are very frequently found in some parts of Africa, are engraved on the two following plates. An *euphorbia*, a very virulent poison, is represented in two plates. A new geranium, which *deserves* the name of *spinosum*, also occurs, but this trivial name is also given to another new species of geranium, which is specifically different in other respects from the former, and is engraved in a subsequent plate. A plate of a very curious and new plant belonging to the *pentandria monogynia* is also inserted; another

another of a new species of mimosa and one of a new species of loxia. The plate of the Hoshmen's habitations we suspect to be taken from description, as our author does not mention having seen them, and the plate contains few characteristical appearances, while those which we find, are not characteristic of this peculiar race. The Hottentots near Orange river may be more correctly represented; but we perceive nothing very peculiar in their appearance.

There are no scientific details of natural history in this volume; but there are many curious, and we think, interesting circumstances interspersed. The account of the amarillis disticha is of this kind; as well as the measurement of the camelopardalis, which was killed by M. Van Renam. Though we have extended our article farther than we expected, we shall transcribe our author's observations respecting the mimosa and its inhabitant, the new species of loxia; and with these remarks we must conclude.

' In the course of this journey I had frequent occasion to mention the mimosas, which abound particularly in the Great Nimiqua Land; and I cannot close my Journal without once more calling the reader's attention to a vegetable production, which must strike every traveller with astonishment; not only from its uncommon size, but from the different uses for which nature seems to have intended it. It produces quantities of gum, which is considered by the natives as a peculiarly delicate species of food; the leaves and lower points of the branches seem to constitute the principal aliment of the camelopardalis; and, from the extent of its boughs, and smoothness of the trunk, it affords a sufficient defence to a species of gregarious bird against the tribe of serpents and other reptiles which would otherwise destroy its eggs.

' The method in which these birds usually fabricate their nests is highly curious. In that of which I have given a representation in the annexed plate, there could be no less a number than from eight hundred to a thousand residing under the same roof. I call it a roof, because it perfectly resembles that of a thatched house, and the ridge forms an angle so acute and so smooth, projecting over the entrance of the nest below, that it is impossible for any reptile to approach them.

' Their industry seems almost equal to that of the bee; throughout the day they seem to be busily employed in carrying a fine species of grass, which is the principal material they employ for the purpose of erecting this extraordinary work, as well as for additions and repairs. Though my short stay in the country was not sufficient to satisfy me by ocular proof, that they added to their nest as they annually increased in numbers, still, from the many trees which I have seen borne down with the weight, and others which I have observed with their

their boughs completely covered over, it would appear that this really was the case; when the tree, which is the support of this aerial city, is obliged to give way to the increase of weight, it is obvious that they are no longer protected, and are under the necessity of rebuilding in other trees.

‘One of these deserted nests I had the curiosity to break down, so as to inform myself of the internal structure of it, and found it equally ingenious with that of the external. There are many entrances, each of which forms a regular street, with nests on both sides, at about two inches distance from each other.’

Travels in Switzerland. In a Series of Letters to William Melmoth, Esq. from William Coxe, M. A. F. R. S. F. A. S. In 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. in Boards. Cadell.

TEN years have elapsed since Mr. Coxe published his volume of *Travels in Switzerland*; and twenty volumes have intervened of our Journal, from the XLVIIth, where we examined it. In that interval he has not been idle; and, in the same period, we have carefully gleaned from various travellers what observation, science, or experience have contributed to our knowledge of this district. To Switzerland we have been unusually attentive; for, in its remote recesses, philosophers have added to our knowledge of nature; mineralogists have explored more intimately the recondite stones of the earth; poetry has enlarged the stock of harmless pleasure; and liberty, flourishing undisturbed, has given an example to travellers, which has increased their admiration of their own constitutions, or excited their emulation, if they were not already free. If we contemplate this country on a map, and find it placed to the eastward of France, to the south of the most fertile provinces of Germany, and a little to the north only of the Garden of Europe, Italy, we shall be led to look on it as the most favoured spot of the habitable globe. If we survey it with the eyes of an intelligent traveller, or examine it with our own, it will at first present a very different prospect. Its vast inaccessible mountains; its torrents, cascades, and impracticable rivers; its seas of ice, impassable ravines, and perpetual or destructive snows, will mark it as the most cheerless portion of the universe. If we look still nearer, we shall find it inhabited by a race at once virtuous, laborious, steady, persevering, and ingenious. Liberty gives the zest to their homely fare, and makes them disregard the overhanging mountain, or the equally dangerous avalanche. It is the Swiss only who pines for home, and sinks under a disease which assumes its name from this cause; it is the inhabitant of the cantons who passes his life in procuring independence,

pendence, and returns to enjoy it in the spot which gave him birth. The Swiss, however, have obtained their liberty only after many severe struggles: they have preserved it by their spirit, their mountainous-situation, which renders opposition to an invader easy, and by the jealousy of the surrounding powers. The intrigues of France had reached Geneva; but liberty has again conquered; and, in her present contests for freedom, she will learn its value too well to encroach again on it. If the Swiss would only recall their countrymen who are in the service of other powers, or prevent the regiments from being recruited in the cantons, they would remove the only stain which remains on their national character. It ill becomes a free people to rivet the chains of despotism.

In the volume of our Journal, which we have already referred to, we have paid our traveller the tribute of commendation which was his due. In this new and enlarged edition we perceive many important additions, so minutely blended with the former accounts, that it was not easy to publish the new observations in a separate form. Our author enters Switzerland from Germany on the north, goes to the lake of Zell, the lower part of the lake of Constance, coasts westward along the Rhine, the northern boundary of Switzerland, so far as Biffort, proceeds southerly to Bienne, goes to Zurich, and returns to the lake of Constance. From thence he goes to the south again on the eastern side, and in a devious line crosses the heart of Switzerland in various directions. His most southerly termination is, at Como*, and the most westernly Geneva. The Tour contains not only a picturesque description of the wilder and more majestic beauties of the country, but an account of the towns, the government, and a short political history of the different cantons; of the public literary establishments, and of literary men; of the commerce of the country; and of the amiable simplicity of its inhabitants. Much of this work is undoubtedly the production of the closet, and its source is not an observation of the country, but the volumes of different historians; yet we ought not to blame what has afforded us both entertainment and instruction: while the author described what he saw, every intelligent reader will wish for a short history of preceding ages, and the different works are neither easily procured, nor easily read. The additions relate frequently to the descriptions of the country; the discoveries of different authors, in these tracts; to various literary establishments, and some miscellaneous topics.

* Properly and correctly speaking, Como; and indeed the whole of the country to the south of the Levantine Valley, is not in Switzerland.

We cannot follow the author, in this second edition, very minutely. It is enough to point out a few of those numerous passages which are added; and we shall subjoin some remarks which they may suggest. General Pfiffer's model of Switzerland is at last completed: its centre is the lake of Lucerne, and its length is $20\frac{1}{2}$ feet; its breadth 12: the scale about a square foot, to two miles and a quarter. About the height of an inch in the model is equal to 900 feet, and every portion of this district is represented with singular exactness and precision. The general's remarks in his peregrinations, for he surveyed the country very minutely, are curious and entertaining:

'According to a rough calculation, the height on which snow usually remains during summer, may be estimated at 1360 toises, or 8704 English feet, above the level of the sea; and on which it never melts, at 1448, or 9264 feet.

'As a curious instance of divided property, he pointed out the promontory called Kieman, on the western shore of the lake of Zug, of which the ground belongs to Lucerne, the timber to Zug, and the leaves to Schweitz. As a proof of astonishing confidence, he shewed me, on each side of the road that runs through the valley of Muotia, in the canton of Schweitz, several ranges of small shops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked: any passengers, who wish to become purchasers, enter the shops, take away the merchandise, and deposit the price, which the owners call for in the evening.

'Among the phenomena of nature he mentioned the Rigi, an insulated mountain near the lake of Lucerne, twenty-five miles in circumference, and rising to a perpendicular height of more than four thousand feet above the surface of the lake: it is entirely composed of gravel and pudding-stone, and must have been formed by the waters. The Rigi joins to a small ridge of sand-stone running towards Schweitz.

'Mount Pilate offers a most singular curiosity. At the elevation of five thousand feet, and in the most perpendicular part of the mountain, near the pasture of Brunlen, is observed, in the middle of a cavern hollowed in a black rock, a colossal statue, which appears to be of white stone. It is the figure of a man in drapery standing, leaning one elbow on a pedestal, with one leg crossed over the other, and so regularly formed, that it cannot be a *lusus naturæ*. This statue is called Dominic by the peasants, who frequently accost it from the only place in which it can be seen, and when their voices are re-echoed from the cavern, they say, in the simplicity of their hearts, "Dominic has answered us."

In Mr. Coxe's later journeys, he visited the interior part of the canton of Lucerne, and particularly describes the valley of Entlibuch, a route not frequented by travellers in general. The Shrove

Shrove Monday ambassador, with his satirical lampoon, and the subsequent battle, not only mark the peculiar sprightly genius of the Entlibuchers, but the spirit of the former times. The conquered parish is always styled Austrian. The account of the chain of mountains, called St. Gothard; is also new; and in many respects interesting:

‘The chain of mountains, which immediately surround this place, takes the general appellation of St. Gothard; and its particular parts are called by different names; of which the principal are, the Salla, Prosa, and Surecha, to the east; the Feudo, the Petina, and the Locendro, to the west; to the north, the Ursino; and to the south, the ridge of naked and piked rocks of the Val-Maggia. Of these the Feudo is the most elevated: its highest point rises above 2,000 feet above the plain in which stands the friar’s house, and requires three hours to reach it. There are six pastures on the neighbouring heights; on which are fed two hundred cows, a hundred and fifty goats, and thirty horses.

‘On examining, at mid-day, Reaumur’s thermometer, placed in the shade in a northern aspect, I was much surprised to find, that the mercury stood at $6\frac{1}{5}$ above freezing point, or 46 of Fahrenheit, although the northern wind was exceedingly keen, and, if I had judged from my own feelings, I should have concluded that the air was in a freezing state.

‘About four years ago, the elector of Bavaria sent to the friar several barometers, thermometers, and other meteorological instruments, which has enabled him to note the variations of the atmosphere, and to form a series of observations, of which he favoured me with the following result:

‘In the most extreme cold he ever experienced in these parts, the mercury in Reaumur’s thermometer fell to 19 degrees below freezing point, or -10 of Fahrenheit.

‘In 1784. Greatest heat on the 13th of September, it stood at 13, or $61\frac{1}{2}$ of Fahrenheit. Greatest cold at -17 , or $-8\frac{1}{2}$ of Fahrenheit.

‘M. de Luc’s barometer never rose higher than 22. 3. 1. or fell lower than — — — 20. 9. 9.

‘It appeared from observations made in 1784, that the average state of the thermometer and barometer was as follows:

	Thermometer.	Barometer.
Nine in the morning, }	$2\frac{1}{5}$ of Reaumur, or 28 of Fahrenheit	21 9 2
Mid-day —	0 — or 32 —	21 9 3
Nine in the afternoon, }	1—3 lines, — or $29\frac{1}{2}$ —	21 9 4

‘In the same year it snowed during some part of 118 days; rained 78; cloudy 293; tempest, with hail, 12; thunder and lightning 22; rainbow 4. Halos round the sun 2, and round the moon 2. Serene days 87.’

G g 2

The

The glacier of Furca is described more advantageously, and at greater length than before: the route, which in our author's inexperienced state is styled extremely difficult and dangerous, appeared *now*, comparatively easy. At this place the Rhone bursts from below the ice, though the source of the river is said to be three *warm* springs in the neighbourhood. They are of a more equable temperature, and consequently supposed, to arise from the deeper regions of the earth, while the water, which bursts from the glacier, is attributed to the melting snow and ice. Near this spot arise both the Rhone and the Rhine, rivers whose mouths are so distant, which run in such various directions, fertilising soils of a dissimilar nature, subservient to various kinds of commerce, and to the convenience of very distinct races. The height of this ground must consequently be very great, and we may add to the singularity, by remarking that, though these sources are scarcely more than fifteen miles distant, the valley between them receives the Tessino from the mountains bordering on it, a river, that instead of following the westernly direction of the Rhone, or the north-easterly of the Rhine, is lost in the lake of Locarno, on the south, and on the borders of Italy to appear again under a new name, and, as the Po, to fall into the Adriatic.

Mr. Coxe persists in his opinion, that the goitiers are owing to tuf, in the water, and has even adduced an instance, where a surgeon informed him that particles of this stone had been taken from goitiers. But this fact is inconsistent with chemistry and every circumstance relating to the animal economy. We *know* that waters impregnated with tuf, or, as he should have said, selenite, are not injurious: tufa alone is indissoluble. Saussure was more near the truth, when he ascribed the goitiers to heat and a stagnant air: goitrous persons have every other mark of a relaxed system. Mount Blanc, the highest mountain in Switzerland, and perhaps of the old continent, is certainly more than 15,600 feet above the level of the sea.

In the second volume we find some philosophical remarks on the probable augmentation or diminution of the Glaciers, those fields of ice, which are best pictured to the mind by supposing a stormy sea instantly congealed. They seem occasionally to increase and to diminish. The following conclusion appears to rest on the secure ground of well authenticated facts:

‘These facts justly lead to the following conclusions:—that the glacier once extended as far as the row of tall firs; that, upon its gradual dissolution, a number of trees shot up in the very spots which it formerly occupied; that, since that period, the ice has again advanced; and has overturned the trees of later date, before they had grown to any considerable height.

• To

‘To these circumstances, the following fact may be added. Large stones of granite are usually found at a small distance from the extremities of the glacier. These stones have certainly fallen from the mountains upon the ice; have been carried on in its progress; and have tumbled into the plain upon the dissolution or sinking of the ice which supported them. These stones, which the inhabitants call *Moraine*, form a kind of border, towards the foot of the valley of ice, and have been pushed forward by the glacier in its advances: they extend even to the place occupied by the larger pines.’

Mr. Coxe is fully of opinion that the ice and snow do not accumulate; but, as they increase in some places and diminish in others, the aggregate mass appears to continue nearly the same. There is also a good account of the bouquetin, illustrated by a plate; but of this animal we formerly gave a description, drawn from the same source which has furnished Mr. Coxe with his information.

Our author's account of Neufchatel is a flattering one: we shall transcribe so much of it as is new:

‘The mildness of the government, and the general well-being of the inhabitants, are visibly demonstrated from the increase of population among the natives, and the prodigious influx of settlers. The number of souls in the principality of Neufchatel and Vallengin being, in 1752, only 28,017 subjects, and 4,318 aliens, amounted, in 1784, to 31,576 subjects, and 9,704 aliens, which gives an increase of near a fourth part within the space of thirty-two years.

‘The facility of acquiring the burghership of Neufchatel, has also prevented any decrease of its inhabitants. Thus the magistrates, between the years 1760 and 1770, admitted forty-one burghers; from 1770 to 1780, forty-six; from 1780 to 1785, fifty-one; in all, a hundred and thirty-eight. Many of these settlers had children before they purchased the burghership; and thirty-eight were foreigners, either German, French, or Swiss.’

The route from Pontarlier to Neufchatel is now also first described; and the new anecdotes of Rousseau are very interesting. These it is impossible for us to extract or abridge with advantage; and, for the same reason, we must omit our author's philosophical description of the chains of mountains, according as they are calcareous or granitic. A map, like that formerly published in the *Journal de Physique*, where the mountains of different natures were differently shaded, would have been a valuable addition to this description. The anecdotes of Haller are frequently new, and generally important.

Of Geneva, the account is very extensive, and, in many respects, complete. Its constitution, and the events by which it

has been of late so much influenced, are detailed at length. The interference and protection of France we have formerly had occasion to explain: its last revolution we may describe from Mr. Coxe's history. The revolution in 1768 established, as we have formerly seen, the power of France, and subverted the democratical government; but though depressed, they were not vanquished. Each faction endeavoured to ingratiate itself with the natives, and seemed to form alliances, in case it should be necessary to have recourse to other contests. In this moment of truce, an accidental quarrel brought on, a little prematurely, fresh contentions. France had guaranteed the revolution in 1768, with the cantons of Berne and Zurich. She wished now to act unshackled, renounced the guarantee, and endeavoured, by arms, to support the aristocratic party. Sardinia and Berne seconded the king of France; and these three powers can only be excused by reasons political and personal, perhaps assisted by the ill use which the popular party made of their power, during the little time they possessed it. The allies, however, approached the walls, and the citizens resolved unanimously to defend them; but a short delay suffered this momentary enthusiasm to evaporate: the prudence of one part and timidity of another dictated concessions, which the approaching armies must soon have enforced. Aristocracy and the power of France were established in 1782, a period when that nation, by the subtle conduct of count de Vergennes, had insinuated itself so far with other powers, as to guide almost in every country the national councils. In Geneva the calm was apparent only: the hemisphere was clouded, and its seeming placidity threatened a more violent storm. It burst in the December of last year, and in January the revolution commenced, and was soon completed. By the 'modifications' of the convention in 1782, the aristocratic power is greatly mitigated, and the rights of the citizens are established. The negatives and representants have each wisely yielded a little, and the peace seems to be now complete and durable. The restless ambition of France must be for a time at rest.

In the third volume Mr. Coxe proceeds from Milan to Como, and goes through the country of the Grisons, to the south of the Levantine valley, and to the west of the Rhine. He examines the effect of Austrian despotism, and the salutary consequences of the three leagues of the Grisons. These are the Grey League, which is probably the oldest; the league of God's House; and of the Ten Jurisdictions: they are all united in a congress, where the deputies deliberate concerning the political affairs of the united provinces. This is the country of the Rhæti, where Drusus triumphed:

Videre

Videre Rhæti bella sub Alpibus
Drufum gerentem et Vindelici—

We own that we have not been so greatly interested by this as by the former volumes; yet the Grisons contended for their liberty with the house of Austria, and succeeded. But this is not the classical ground of the naturalist, and the affections are not so much awakened by the events of their contests as they are by those of the Swis.

There is a particular dissertation on the Romanth; a language which has been already proved to resemble the Latin very closely. The name indeed is very little different from Romana. The language of Virgil, Horace, and Cicero, was not the vernacular idiom. Like the modern Tuscan, it differed from the colloquial language. Dr. Burney, in one of his former volumes of the History of Music, has endeavoured to show, that the Italian comes very near this colloquial dialect of the Romans: the Romanth comes still nearer; and we cannot at this moment perceive a much greater difference between it and the classical Latin, than between the latter and some of the provincial dialects preserved by Plautus. Mr. D. Pennant describes the country to the south of the Levantine valley, which Mr. Coxe did not visit in his tours.

In the Appendix is a very valuable Faunula Helvetica. We shall select an account of the vultur barbatus, of which there is a figure in the second volume, not only as a specimen of our author's manner, but to correct the mistakes of some naturalists, and, indeed, to confirm our own remarks in a late 'Intelligence.'

' A V E S.

' ORDO I. ACCIPITRES. RAPACIOUS.

' VULTUR. *Lin.* 121. VULTURE.

' Vultur Barbatus. *Lin.* 121.

' Aureus. *Gesner. Av.* edit. 1620. p. 708.

' V. barbu. *Briffon.* 6. *App.* p. 26.

' BEARDED VULTURE. *Edwards.* t. 106.

' This bird frequents the Pennine, Rhætan, and Tyrolese Alps. It is found also in Corsica, Sardinia, and probably in Barbary, as well as on mount Caucasus, and in Dauria, or the south-eastern parts of Siberia. It connects the vultures with the eagles. In the form of the beak and of the body it resembles the vulture, but differs from that genus in having the head, like that of the eagles, covered with feathers. It is now so well defined, especially by M. Sprungli, that it can no longer be mistaken. The German peasants of Switzerland name this bird, by way of eminence, the *Lammer-geyer*, and relate incredible tales of its size and

voraciousness: the peasants of the French district frequently call it *Le Vautour Jaune*.'

Mr. Coxé would not forgive us, nor should we deserve forgiveness, if we omitted to mention his very large and accurate map of Switzerland, in the beginning of the work. It is by far the most correct and full that we have yet seen. His map of the country round mount Blanc, in the second volume, deserves also no inconsiderable commendation: the other plates do not merit much distinction. That of the bouquetin, as well as the representation of the head of the vultur barbatus, may at least boast of their accuracy. On the whole, however, the volumes may be considered as valuable additions to the stock of English literature: we can truly say, that we have not for a long time read any work from which we have derived so much entertainment and instruction; and we can safely recommend them to our readers, as containing the best as well as the most authentic information relating to this very curious country.

A Journal of the Passage from India, by a Route partly unfréquented, through Mesopotamia, Armenia, and Natolia, or Asia Minor. To which are added, Observations and Instructions, for the Use of those who intend to travel, either to or from India, By that Route. By Thomas Howel, M. D. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Forster.

IN our LXVIIth Volume, p. 91, we gave a general outline of the different routes to India, through Arabia. Dr. Howell describes a new, and we think a more convenient tract, than the others we have passed with our former literary companions. He went through the Persian Gulf to Bassora, and from thence by water to Corny, a town built at the conflux of the Tigris and Euphrates. From Corny he took advantage of the Euphrates, and pursued his course in a boat to Hilla, or Hillo, where Mr. Irwin was in his last journey. From Hillo Dr. Howel proceeded to Bagdat, and continued nearly in Mr. Irwin's new route to Mosul, except that he declined a little to the westward, instead of continuing in the longitude of Bagdat. But, though our present author crossed the river to Mosul, he did not continue on the western side of the Tigris: he returned as to a safer path, made a little circuit over the mountains, and ultimately crossed the river somewhat higher at Jesseera; from whence he proceeded to Diarbekir, where Mr. Irwin came in his route to India from the coast of the Mediterranean. Our author's new track then commenced: he went nearly north-west, till he again
fell

fell in with the Euphrates, which, a little above Alexandretta, trends more northerly. He crossed it, went in almost the same direction to Amāsia, the capital of the supposed Amazons, not very distant from the most southern angle of the Black Sea, till he reached the sea of Marmora, at Ismit, and crossed over it to Constantinople. From thence he went to Trieste, to Ostend, and to England.

We have styled this route the most convenient one that we have yet followed; and the reasons we shall next assign. The easy conveyance by water to Hillo is a great recommendation; and the passage to Bagdat, which is short and convenient, adds to it. This city retains little of its former splendor; but can still furnish accommodations and supplies. One third of the usual journey is in this way accomplished. If it was possible to sail up the Tigris to Mosul, to Jesseera, or Diarbekir, it would add to the advantages; but, on the eastern sides of the river, the road is not dangerous, water is frequent, and either konacs (caravanseries,) or villages often occur. On the western side, from Jesseera to Diarbekir, the difficulties are greater, and the accommodations worse; but, in each respect, the road is more eligible than through the great desert. Through Armenia and Natolia it appears comparatively convenient. Another advantage in going to Constantinople is, that the sailing through the Mediterranean is shortened; for the light variable winds, and the unskilful sailors, often occasion great delay to those who embark at Alexandretta or Latichea. The heat also on the eastern side of the Tigris and in Armenia is by no means disagreeable; for the air is cooled by the almost perpetual snow on the Curdistan and Turcomanian mountains.

As we have now, in general, described Dr. Howel's route, and pointed out its advantages, it is necessary that we give some little account of his various adventures in it. Of the country he describes what he saw; but a traveller in these spots can see little. Natural objects are few; cultivation is rarely discovered; and the ruins of an opulent and luxurious race are vestiges only; proofs that this dreary spot has not been always uninhabited. At the conflux of the Tigris and Euphrates, some commentators have placed the garden of Eden, not without a little support from the descriptions of Moses; but a slight observation will show, that this spot is only in part conformable to that description. The author of the *Pentateuch* certainly referred to a source of four great rivers, of which the Euphrates was the only one with which the Jews were acquainted. A river that encompassed Ethiopia, the Tigris, and the Euphrates, are distinctly seen; but the former

no

no longer exists; and the source of the whole must have been greatly to the west and to the south; but there we see sea only. We use the word *source* in a common sense: embouchure, or *outlet*, must be intended. Mr. Howel remarks that Corny, at the conflux of the Tigris and Euphrates, affords no marks of having ever been a terrestrial Paradise: all around is a desert flat. It seems to have been left by the sea; for there are some branches of the Euphrates, said to communicate with the Tigris, which are now almost dry.

Our author gives a short account of his journey from Madras across the peninsula of India; but from this we can extract nothing very interesting. One of his companions, Meer Joad, whose passionate conduct seemed to betray a deranged state of mind, is frequently introduced in the journey from Bassora to Bagdat:

‘He was the son of a Georgian slave by a Turkish woman; and, having no patrimony but his sword, embarked at an early period of life in the profession of arms. The first military employment he obtained was under an independant chief, in the country of Sciad, from whose service he passed into that of a prince, in Bengal, where he remained many years, and became acquainted with the famous monsieur Chevalier, the French governor of Chandarnagore. This gentleman being about to convey the large fortune he had amassed to Europe, overland, engaged Meer Joad to accompany him. Their journey was full of hardship and danger; and in their passage over the desert, they were frequently attacked by numerous bodies of Arab plunderers, whom they repulsed with uncommon success. Monsieur Chevalier was so well satisfied with Meer Joad’s courage and conduct on these difficult occasions, that, as soon as he arrived in France, he recommended him to the French ministry, and exerted his interest so effectually in his behalf, as to procure him the commission of a field officer in the duke of Luxemburgh’s legion. In the unsuccessful expedition against Jersey, he was wounded and taken prisoner. After a detention of five months in England, he was exchanged, and upon his return to France was honoured by the king with a gold medal, expressive of his gallant behaviour. The Luxemburgh legion being under orders for the island of Ceylon, whither Meer Joad had no inclination to go, he resigned his commission in the French army, and returned to his native city Bagdad. Here the fame of his service in Europe, and letters of recommendation from persons of high consequence in France, procured him the appointment of captain bashaw of the Turkish fleet at Bassora, which he held till the capture of that place by Shark Ithoony. As his conduct on this occasion rendered him liable to suspicions of having a private understanding with the Arab chief, he thought it prudent to take refuge at Bombay,

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till the first emotions of the anger the bashaw might have conceived against him should have subsided. His whole behaviour, however, during his journey with us, was expressive of the most distressful anxiety respecting the reception he should meet with on his return. He was a lusty, personable man, about the age of forty; spoke the Turkish, Hindostan. Arabic, and French languages well, and some others imperfectly. He was evidently endowed with good natural abilities, but was totally illiterate; not even possessing the useful arts of reading and writing, of which he confessed and regretted his ignorance.

It is singular to see a Georgian officer possess high rank in a French regiment, and again an independent command in Arabia as a Turkish pacha.

In their journey they were provided with horses at the konacs (the Turkish inns); and we find the story of baron Tott realized: the Arabians, like the Tartars, pleaded poverty for not supplying the candles and necessaries, which they were obliged to furnish at the konacs; but when the whip was applied a little unmercifully, they quietly departed and brought every thing that was wanted. When our author approached the Black Sea he became acquainted with different detachments of the Turkish army: we shall transcribe his description of them:

‘The different detachments of the Turkish army I saw during my journey, exhibited no marks of military regularity and discipline: they marched without order; some of them mounted either on horses, asses, or mules. Their dress was not uniform, but they had generally a short jacket, coarse, and of a dark colour, with wide breeches; some wore shoes of leather, or raw hides; others woollen gaiters, fastened with a cord, or ropes of straw twisted round their legs. Their arms consisted of short, light muskets, without bayonets, mounted according to the fancy of the owners, and of knives of different lengths. The officers were well mounted, and handsomely clothed; but in a dress ill suited to the activity of a military life. The janissaries, formerly so much talked of, have at this day nothing but the *ESPRIT DE CORPS* to distinguish them from the bulk of the army. In this description may be included the artillery; and, as the operations of that corps do in particular require military science, it is, comparatively speaking, inferior to the infantry. The cavalry, perhaps, are entitled to more consideration. The irregularity, licentiousness, and military ignorance, common to the Ottoman forces in general, is equally found in their best squadrons; but the activity, spirit, and docility of the horses, renders this corps the most efficient in the Turkish army; and, indeed, it is upon this that they depend for the success of their military operations.’

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We could have wished that our author had not been so hasty in his passage through Mesopotamia and Natolia. This is undoubtedly the oldest continent with which we are acquainted; and it is with regret we observe, that it is a spot of which we probably know the least. A good map is added to the work, but it differs in some respects from that of Mr. Irwin, and the longitudes and latitudes differ occasionally from those of Niebuhr.

At the end are very judicious directions to travellers who may follow the same route; and this work will undoubtedly be very useful to those who would reach India by passing through Arabia and Mesopotamia, without following the circuitous course of the Cape. As our connexions with India now increase, we are surprised that this point is so much neglected. Perhaps it is impracticable to reconcile so many capricious chiefs, and their jarring interests; perhaps the expence, in a period of peace, is more than equivalent to the time saved. Whatever may be the cause, there appears to be an unaccountable supineness in this respect among the ruling powers of India. They should recollect that war, though distant, may again occur; and another sacrifice, like that at Cuddalore, be occasioned by want of an easy and quick passage.

Hampshire extracted from Domesday-Book. To which is added a Glossary, explanatory of the obscure and obsolete Words.

By Richard Warner, jun. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Robinsons.

SINCE we are not permitted to receive the whole of this curious record, it is of some importance that we see it in detail; and while the general publication is not undertaken, its different parts make a necessary appendage to every county history. Mr. Warner, in the volume before us, has published the account given in it of Hampshire very correctly, and has added to it some remarks on the early state of England, which, if not always new, are curious, and generally interesting. Of the work in general, we have little to add to what we remarked in our review of that part of Domesday which contains Wiltshire, published last year by Mr. Wyndham. Of the preface and introduction some farther examination may be necessary.

Domesday-book consists of two volumes, a folio of 382 double pages of vellum, with two columns in each page, and a quarto of 450 double pages of vellum, containing one column only in each. The last contains Essex, Norfolk, and Suffolk: the first contains a description of the other counties, except Northum-

Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and the Bishoprick of Durham. A small part of Cumberland and the south part of Westmoreland are included indeed in Yorkshire; but the rest of these counties seem not to have been surveyed, because they contained no inhabitants. In the wars with the Danes and Scots, they were probably laid waste. The object of this vast work is unknown. The great mind of William was, we think, superior to that vanity which delights in counting its possessions; and we must either consider his motive to be a wish of ascertaining the demesnes which really belonged to the king, and which, during the inglorious reign of Etheldred, or the confused dynasty of the Danes, had been alienated; or to ascertain the real number of vassals, and the homage which was due. The former we think no improbable opinion; and the latter, which is that of judge Wright, in his introduction to the Law of Tenure, is supported by the general homage which followed. The survey was begun in the fourteenth year of the Conqueror's reign, and concluded in the twentieth. William seems to have deferred it only till he found his possession of the kingdom undisputed.

Mr. Warner, in the introduction, considers the state of England from the time of Alfred: the period preceding his age, he thinks, is too obscure for investigation; yet we find it at last indispensable. The political regulations into tythings, hundreds, and trythings, of which we still retain the vestige in Yorkshire, under the name of ridings, are well known. The tything consisted of ten families; the hundreds of ten tythings; and the last division was wholly independent of the number of families, and consisted of a third of a county; a circumstance unknown to the Yorkshire squire, who considered the division of the county as incomplete, because there was not a fourth riding. The political system of Alfred was in many respects admirable, and it deserves a more attentive consideration, because it was probably the remains of the ancient system. Whatever may have been the pretensions of William, or the truth of his story respecting Edward's will, his conduct was truly that of a conqueror. He brought a needy train of vassals, whom he rewarded with profusion: the Norman possessors of the different manors, mentioned in Domesday, are so numerous, that many have thought William meant only to preserve the list of his Norman vassals. The laws, the customs, and the language of Normandy were also introduced, while the ancient Saxon customs continued only in the common law. These the Saxons, as our author properly remarks, brought from the woods of Germany; and for this reason we just now observed, that some enquiry into the state of England during the Saxon dynasties

was

was indispensable. Perhaps Mr. Warner may pursue it in another work; for we know no subject more interesting to a modern Englishman, none that has been considered with less precision; though various sources of information still remain. In an enquiry of this kind, it would be necessary to consider the customs of the Saxons in their native woods, as connected with their Gothic or Scythian ancestors; to trace the progress and developement of these during their government of England, and to examine their influence on our modern traditionary system of law.

The political state of England from the time of Alfred, and the changes introduced by the Norman conqueror, we have said are the chief subjects of Mr. Warner's introduction, which displays much acuteness and no inconsiderable share of information. During the reign of Ethelred the Danegelt was established; and, on this subject, we shall transcribe a necessary and very useful distinction.

‘ This then may be considered as the æra, when these *subsidiary payments* commenced, which continued to be remitted to the North till 1040, a series of about twenty-eight years; the sums hitherto exacted by the Danes, were *tributary payments*, made by the English to save their kingdom from the horrors of war; whereas those fines *subsequent* to this period, were, as I said before, *subsidiary* or *stipendiary* payments, annually raised by the general tax called Danegeld, and given to the Danes, in consequence of express contracts or treaties, entered into between the Danes and the English, by which the former agreed to furnish the latter with a certain force military and naval, in consideration of a stated subsidy, proportionable to the number of men and ships, which were thus lent to this country. This distinction between the two kinds of payment, should be clearly understood, and kept continually before us, in perusing the transactions of this age, as many of our historians, for want of thus discriminating between them, have been led into confused and contradictory accounts; several asserting that the *first payments*, were subsidiary and annual, and that Danegeld had its commencement in 991, whereas in fact it did not take place till 1012, when the English hired forces of the Danes, on the terms above mentioned.’

In the following passage, we apprehend, the author refers to the statute law; yet perhaps this opinion should be received with some limitations: it is not probable that the conqueror would totally disregard the customs or the prejudices of his new subjects.

‘ In the cursory view we have thus taken, of the Saxon form of government previous to the Norman conquest, the attacks it then sustained, and alterations it underwent, we shall have seen sufficient

sufficient reason to convince us, that many particulars in our present laws and constitution received their origin at that era; these, several of our able legal writers have attempted to trace, from pure and unadulterated Saxon sources; but a little trouble in comparing the one with the other, and a small degree of consideration, prove them to have been mistaken in their supposition, and make it evident to us, that although the Saxons might have formed the *basis* of the edifice, yet the greatest part of the *superstructure* was the work of Norman artists.

The Latin of Domesday is translated, in general, with accuracy; and our author compares the ancient manors with the present state of the county: many of these are no longer to be discovered. The work concludes with a very useful Glossary. His explanation of a hide of land is curious: with it we shall conclude our article:

‘HIDA. What the contents of a hide were, seems to be a matter of great doubt and uncertainty; for almost all our antiquarians and glossarists vary in their opinions respecting it. Arthur Agard himself, who was a man indefatigable in his antiquarian researches, and every way qualified for the task, confesses, that with respect to the Saxon measurements of land, his labours had met with but little success. For, says he, it so fareth with me, that in perusing as well those abbreviations I have noted out of Domesday, and other records since that time, and also those notes I have quoted out of ancient registers, and books, which have fallen into my hands within these thirty years; I have found the diversity of measurement so variable and different in every county, shire, and place in the realm, as I was in a manner doubtful whether it were better for me to write or not. His conjecture, with respect to the etymology of the word, is not incurious, as follows; “I do think that our nation drawing first our original from the Trojans, that is from the Trojians, as some write, could not but bring from thence the same order which was observed in those countries, of measuring their lands; as appears by Dido (in Virgil) who was the founder of Carthage, and coming thither by sea, bought of the prince of that country, so much ground as she could compass with a hyde, to build a city for herself and her subjects; which being granted, she caused the same to be cut into small threads, and so compassed a mighty deal of land more than was expected. So our forefathers, as it should seem, did collop out the countries they dwelt in, in like sort. And the etymology of the word hyde I think was drawn from Dido’s act before spoken of; for you shall not find that word in any other language than ours, neither French, Latin, Italian, &c.” It is probable, however, a *lyde* consisted of 120 acres; for the Black Book in the Chapter House, at Westminster, says expressly, Hyda a primitiva institutione ex centum acris constat.

Lib.

Lib. Nig. in cap. penult. lib. i. And 100 Norman acres (the measurement here spoken of) were equal to 120 English ones.

An Essay on Sensibility. A Poem. In Six Parts. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Nicol.

HAPPINESS and misery are often so closely interwoven in human concerns, that it is not always easy to analyse or separate them. That sensation of the mind which we term sensibility participates, in a very peculiar manner, of these contrary qualities, and forms an interesting and copious subject for the philosopher or poet. Many favourable specimens of either character are given by our author: and though we must allow his mode of reasoning to be not always sufficiently accurate, and some passages to be heavy and prosaic, yet these objections are not of sufficient weight to detract from the general merit of a poem consisting of between three and four thousand lines. It is divided into six books. The first considers the pleasures of sensibility; shews that happiness cannot be acquired by the brutal and selfish mind, but that the man possessed of delicate feelings is alone susceptible of it in the highest degree. As a contrast to this position, the three succeeding books are taken up in considering the pains attending a too exquisite sensibility. The first of these describes the general calamities of life: in the next are delineated private characters and their pursuits; in which the feeling mind must naturally be interested; and be strongly affected at the misfortunes, follies, or vices of others. The miseries that arise from the more intimate and tender connections of life are examined in that which follows; where the author's own sensibility appears to advantage in the tribute paid to his brother's memory, which concludes the book.

In the fifth part apathy is considered; and this personification of it will please the reader.

‘ Upon that clime where frost’s eternal chain,
Holds th’ iron earth, and adamantine main,
And waste and winter ceaseless vigils keep,
While nature’s pow’r is lock’d in endless sleep:
A rocky hill its glistening summit rears,
Incrusted with the snows of thousand years;
Here, on the midway sleep, a cavern yawns,
Upon whose gloom no morning ever dawns,
Whose winding sides the howling blasts assault,
While icicles depend from all the vault.
This seat has heaven to apathy assign’d:
The sluggish monster on the rock reclin’d,

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Scarce knows to move. * Along her rigid veins
 Life's current a laborious passage gains.
 Sensation struggles through her nerves to rise,
 And, at the head arriving, gasps and dies.
 No spark of passion can her breast conceive,
 With rage to kindle, or with grief to heave.
 In torpor fix'd, her eyes forget to roll,
 And mark the petrification of her soul.
 Her motive faculty alone revives,
 When within Cancer's bound the sun arrives,
 Draws from the snowy heap the trickling rill,
 And slowly makes the icicle distil :
 Then, as if thaw'd, she takes her tardy way,
 T' extend o'er human hearts her torpid sway.
 Those sluggish bosoms, in which never rise
 The precious seeds that nature's hand supplies ;
 The seeds, from which each soft affection grows,
 Each generous passion, each result of those ;
 The tender bands which clinging round the soul,
 Hold it in strong, though lenient, controul ;
 The glorious ardour which the heart inspires,
 When public good impels, and honour fires ;
 These callous souls she seizes as her own,
 And, like Medusa's head, transforms to stone.*

From this it will appear, though the pains of sensibility are extended to three books, and its pleasures comprised in one, that the author is no advocate for unfeeling indifference and inaction. He justly observes, that nothing good or excellent in human life can be obtained without some mixture of pain and labour ; ' and shall,' he exclaims, in praise of the humane sensations we feel at another's distress,

' the joys that raise us to the sky,
 Be deem'd unworthy of a pang or sigh ?'

We are tempted to transcribe the following passage, both on account of its own merit, and the strong resemblance it bears to the style and manner of Pope in his *Essay on Man*. More good sense, more clearly expressed, condensed more closely, and in smoother numbers, cannot easily be found.

' As from affections all our vices flow,
 So from them every virtue here below.
 They give the spring, they constitute the good
 Or ill to be avoided or pursued,
 And all that Heav'n by reason's pow'r intends,
 Is to direct them to their proper ends.
 These ends she first discovers, then adjusts
 Their motions, and restrains their lawless gusts.
 If rul'd by her, they breathe an equal gale,
 On life's expanse with easy course we sail ;

But if with sudden, rushing squalls, they sweep,
 Th' unbalanc'd bark is buried in the deep.
 Say, what is temp'rance? but the pow'r to fight
 And subjugate insurgent appetite.
 What justice? but the faculty to rein
 Ambition, envy, anger, love of gain.
 What prudence? but the happy care to look
 Ere blind expectance take the baited hook.
 What courage? but a parley held with fear,
 Till evil it repel, or learn to bear.
 What piety? but gratitude and love
 Exalted to perfection's source above.
 What patriotism? but selfishness subdu'd,
 And turn'd to wish and work a country's good.
 What every virtue? but the pow'r that bends
 The noblest passion to the noblest ends:
 That keen, that constant sense of right and wrong,
 Which guards the soul temptations' snares among,
 Keeps firm attach'd to duty's lovely form,
 And b'ids defiance to each threat'ning storm.'

Notwithstanding the objection our author makes to a state of apathy, it is possibly beyond the power of man precisely to determine whether a tender and susceptible mind, its pleasures and anxieties fairly balanced, is more desirable than that which is stupid and unfeeling. We can argue from our own sensations only: the decision must depend on the state of our animal spirits, on health or sickness, on prosperity or adversity, and a variety of other changeable circumstances. So that, instead of determining the question in general, we cannot well determine it as to ourselves; since our opinion must depend on, and fluctuate with the perpetual changes that occur in human affairs, and our own no less mutable inclinations and affections. We confine, however, this observation to our present state of existence. If we look to that which is future, we decide with our author in favour of sensibility; who, in the sixth book, very properly advises us to guard against the too great indulgence of it; and asserts, that under the guidance of reason, it will never lead to unhappiness. This does not seem to be expressed with precision. If it alludes to a future state of being, we shall not dispute the position; but the mind naturally endued with a tender sensibility, may *here* meet with such worldly calamities, that neither reason nor prudence may be able to avoid or subdue. Indeed the author concludes his poem nearly to this effect; that those who deeply feel, who suffer through love or friendship, from the same feeling should derive their remedy, and direct their love to an Almighty friend; that the present world must necessarily prove a mixed-

ed scene for the trial of vice and virtue, but that in a future state all inequalities will be adjusted. To this we thoroughly subscribe. The mind selfish and obdurate, that feels not another's woe, nor rejoices in his happiness, can be but ill adapted to participate the joys of another state: but the benevolent mind that partakes another's pleasure, that shares and soothes his sorrows, feels even in the luxury of grief, somewhat congenial to the pure delights imagined in futurity.

Yet, however highly we admire a well-directed sensibility, and think

‘ That those who sow in tears shall reap in joy ;’ we are no less disgusted with the abuse of it. When indulged beyond the bounds of reason it degenerates into weakness; when affected, it is absurd; and when directed to improper objects, extremely dangerous. This word, like *sentiment*, has of late years been often strangely perverted, and applied to gild the violation of the most sacred duties. Excess of sensibility, or a sentimental affection, is often an apology for a young lady's elopement from a harsh father, or that of a wife from a stupid husband. *Delicate feelings* become the substitutes for those of virtue; and we are too often taught by the prevalence of fashion and delusions of sophistry, to interest ourselves as much in the calamities of guilt, as in the afflictions of innocence. This vicious refinement of manners might have been combated with success in the poem now before us, in which, however, we find much to praise and little to condemn.

The Rural Economy of Gloucestershire; including its Dairy: together with the Dairy Management of North Wiltshire; and the Management of Orchards and Fruit Liquor, in Herefordshire. By Mr. Marshall. In Two Volumes. 8vo. 14s. in Boards. Nicol.

MR. Marshall proceeds in his plan, and has now given the observations which occurred in his third station. It was originally designed that he should examine the agricultural processes in seven different stations; in Surry, Norfolk, and Yorkshire, on the east; in Gloucestershire, on the west; in some central situation of the counties of Somerset, Devon, and Dorset, on the south; in the midland counties, and in Northumberland, including the low-lands of Scotland. Of these our author has explained the practice in Surry, Norfolk, in Yorkshire, and in the volumes before us that of Gloucestershire: the account of the midland counties is preparing for the press, and

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this, he hints, will conclude his labours. They will at farthest be terminated by the Rural Economy of the more Southern counties.

In this literary warfare, by a collision of sentiments, and by the habits of writing, Mr. Marshall has lost much of his asperity, and many of his peculiarities. He retains only his acuteness, his precision, and his good sense. His present objects are the vales of Gloucester and Evesham, the Cotswold Hills, and the vale of Berkley, as well as North Wiltshire, and Herefordshire. The Wye, from the west, and the Severn, from the north and the west, nearly meet in their embouchures, or rather join with the Avon from the east to form from their tributary stores, one vast lake which communicates with the sea. This fertile Delta, if the western windings of the Wye did not forbid the term, is the object of Mr. Marshall's attention. It is bounded nearly on the east and west by the rivers or the sea, and on the north by the Severn, and the curve of the Avon (another Avon) which joins with the Severn at Tewkesbury. A part of Warwickshire, Oxfordshire, Berkshire, and the northern part of Herefordshire complete the boundaries.

This fertile vale was left by the declining rivers, which still occasionally overflow, and by the sea. It was once probably 'a wash,' and its present soil is of the colour which distinguishes the floods of the Severn. A high part, near the Town-Ham, Mr. Marshall thinks was the Isle of Olney, since the cut which includes the present island is said to be artificial. It is not easy to determine where the retreat of Alfred was, as the marsh occasionally overflowed, and many temporary circumstances might have formed an island. The spot thus distinguished in our time bids as fair for the honour as any other, since an artificial cut was probably directed through low grounds, or a natural hollow. That this vale was recovered from the water is very evident, and it is particularly observed that the soil is calcareous, *except within the sphere of vegetating plants*; a fact which certainly requires attention, and perhaps confirmation. What we have said relates to the vale only. This district contains the Cotswold hills, the source of the Thames; the Malvern hills, and many hills of less importance.

Mr. Marshall first describes this district generally, and rises to a warmth of description, and of picturesque discrimination that would not disgrace Mr. Gilpin.

'Passing downward, its more finished scenery commences with the Malvern hills: from whence to the rocks of Chesham, its area and its banks form one continuous scene of picturesque beauty. A garden forty miles in extent. A grand suite of ornamental grounds, in nature's best style. Every part

is pleasing. The banks bold ; and happily varied : and partially hung with wood. The area strewed with hillocks, fertile to the summits, affording endless points of view ; while the hillocks themselves are, in their turns, the cause of infinite beauty. The soil every where rich ; and mostly in a state of grass. The Severn winding with unusual freedom. With the Welch mountains rising in happy distance. These features well associated give this passage of country a preference, in beauty, to every other this island is possessed of ; and, in much probability, to every other this planet is adorned with. There may be natural situations equal to it : but where shall we find seasons so favourable to rural ornament as in this island ; and, in such a climate, cultivation so highly raised ?”

Our author then proceeds to a more particular description of the vale, whose soil is often a cold clay mixed with limestone, the debris of the higher lands. Property is intermixed in a singular manner, which Mr. Marshall attributes to the policy of the clergy rather than of the barons, though both must have the same views, to prevent grazing, in order to keep up the necessary supply of corn. The produce is still generally corn, though much is in grass ; but common meadows and stinted pastures must be reckoned to render the proportion of grass land great. The cultivated and productive parts of the vale are undoubtedly arable. Mr. Marshall proceeds to examine the general management of estates, farm-buildings, and field-fences ; hedge-row, timber, woodlands, trees, farming, farms, farmers, and workmen ; but these details will not admit of abridgement. Our author's remarks on the different kinds of lime, and their different powers of absorption, well deserve attention ; and, among the workmen, the exploit of drinking two gallons of cyder at a draught exceeds almost our belief. Mr. Marshall, from a still more extraordinary attempt, computes that a Severn man's stomach will hold only two gallons three pints ; and we may add that his breath will admit of his swallowing only two gallons. Four well seasoned yeomen of the vale have drank out a hoghead of cyder at one sitting.

The beasts employed are horses only, with an awkward heavy long plough. Mr. Marshall recommends shod oxen, or at least to diminish the size of the plough, in order to lessen the number of horses. He is convinced, from his observations on the practice of other countries, that allowing for the strength of the land, ploughed deep with steep ridges, the general practice in the vales of Gloucester and Evesham, there is a great waste of labour in this district. The Gloucestershire waggon is, on the other hand, highly commended. In the account of the seasons there is nothing very important, as it is only that of the

year 1788. From the swift's never mistaking the seasons, or appearing before the warm weather is really arrived, Mr. Marshall concludes that it does not migrate.

In the general management of the farms of the vale, corn is the first object, and the course of husbandry is fallow, barley, beans or clover, and wheat. Some fields called, 'Every Years Land,' are constantly cropped, without an intervening fallow. In general, the Gloucestershire husbandman is slovenly, not sufficiently attentive to his weeds: barley, especially, if it 'lodge,' is the cleansing crop. The following fact, on the subject of tillage, is remarkable:

'There is indeed a disadvantage attending the reduction of high ridges, which those, who have had no experience in them, may not be aware of. The cores of the ridges; though they have been formed out of the original top-soil; which, in all human probability, was, when buried, of a singularly fertile nature, are now become inactive, unproductive masses of dead earth. I have observed, where one of these ridges has been cut across in sinking a stone pit, that the present soil forms an arch of dark-coloured rich-looking mould, a foot to eighteen inches deep;—under which lies a regularly turned cylinder of ill-coloured sub-soil; resembling the natural sub-soil of the country so much, that, unless we had indisputable evidence of these ridges being the work of art, we should be led to conclude that nature had moulded them to their present form. This appears to me an interesting circumstance, especially entitled to the agricultor's attention.'

The Gloucestershire farmers, at least those of the vale, do not choose to 'sow the *fresh* furrows of stiff land,' as they think it lies too hollow. Corn, in general, and indeed all vegetable crops, are hoed; the harvestmen have no regular dinner, and the barn-management is nearly that of the southern counties. On the subject of yard-management, and markets, we meet with nothing which deserves particular attention. The kinds and the management of wheat are particularly described. The produce is, however, small; and perhaps the average not more than twelve or fourteen bushels an acre: in the 'every years fields' it is often not eight. The land is undoubtedly in many places cold and watery; but much bad management, in Mr. Marshall's opinion, contributes to this deficiency. Barley is the next crop mentioned; and our author very warmly inveighs against the popular but destructive plan of 'tantalizing foul land with a barley fallow.' Oats, Mr. Marshall thinks, are well adapted to the strong cold soil of the vales; but few are sown, because the farmer observes, that they can never be got out of the land, and will become weeds in future crops. In reality,

ality, our author observes that it is the wild oat which grows so plentifully in the vales; but it is not certain that the cultivated oat does not become wild, without care; and, from some of Mr. Marshall's observations, it is probable that he has seen them in this degenerating state.

The management of pulse, and a description of the different natural and artificial grasses follow. The rye-grass (*lolium perenne*) is the most common; but in the management of grass lands, weeding and draining are too much neglected. Topping weeds is common, and the practice is much commended. The shutting up grass-lands for hay is generally and properly regulated by the nature of the soil; but sometimes a particular day is fixed and observed, whether the season is wet or dry, warm or cold: in one instance, a singular and destructive custom is still continued, and two horses are by privilege admitted to pasture in a very large meadow while the crop is growing. The hay is cut early; the swarth-width is small (on an average not more than six feet); and the grass left in consequence very level. The hay is very much heated in wind-cocks, and made into very large ricks. The after-grass is eat immediately; and, in stocking, it is common to mix a few sheep with cattle. Yet sheep, particularly stock-flocks, are not suitable to this cold, low, watery soil. They soon die of the rot, which our author attributes to a preternatural degree of water, taken in unavoidably with the meat. The first effect is a collection of water in the body; the second a white scum on the liver; and the third flukes in that organ. It is undoubtedly a chronic disease, yet we have known it caught in a night, which is not very consistent with Mr. Marshall's system. In the vales they now keep but few sheep, and frequently change their flocks.

Cows are very numerous, for Gloucestershire is a dairy country. The peculiar breed of the country (the Gloucestershire kind) is not common, for it is mixed with different sorts, chiefly from Staffordshire and the midland counties; but it is well observed, that the credit of the dairies arose from its cattle, and may decline with them. There is nothing very particular in the management: the Gloucestershire farmer often rears his cow; milks it for about eight or nine years, fattens, and sells it to the butcher. Heating milk to a pretty considerable degree is said to render it more salutary to the calf, and to prevent the scouring. The practice of rearing and fattening are particularly described. Mr. Marshall even thinks it might be advantageous to import linseed for the latter purpose from America. Oxen are not often fatted when old and worked; though some instances are produced, and we know of others

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where

where this plan has succeeded. It has been supposed that they do not fill up kindly. The descriptions of oxen and their several points are very accurately described, with the methods employed for fattening and managing them in general.

The most interesting part of this volume relates to the dairy; and we are sorry that from its nature, and the connexion of the several processes, that it is impossible to abridge it with advantage. We may select a part or two of curiosity, perhaps of importance. In making cheese, the quality of the curd seems to depend on the heat of the whey, for, when properly coagulated, its heat is 80° , and that this is probable appears from the practice of the dairy-woman, who, in colder weather, gives a greater heat to the milk. They always also scald the curd, for if it run cool without previous scalding, the cheeses would not be for a long time fit for the market. This method also enables to correct any error in the curdling, since, when the curd is too soft, the scalding liquor, which is either whey or water, or sometimes both, in equal quantities of each, is heated more considerably. If these practices are followed in other countries, it must be remembered that the milk of the vales is very rich. The two-meal cheese, for instance, succeeds but ill in less luxuriant soils. An account of the methods of breeding swine, price of labour and materials, a list of rates and provincialisms, conclude the volume.

The second volume begins with an account of the Cotswold hills; in other times, perhaps, the cliffs were washed by the sea, or covered by occasional inundations. They are still calcareous, sometimes mixed with clay, but the clay frequently accompanied with marl; they abound with water, a more frequent attendant on hills than Mr. Marshall apprehends. These hills, formerly a sheep-walk, are now inclosed, and their prosperous appearance is, in part, attributed to the commutation of land for tythes; and though the allowance was great, the purchase seems to have been cheap. There is little wood; the estates are large, and generally, though not universally, leased. Of the farms and the building materials we can give no very particular account. Their mortar is very hard, made with the scrapings of the calcareous roads, united to quick-lime; their barn-floors of a similar kind, worked dry by repeated listings, and hardened by beating. The inclosures are stone. Wood for building is not scarce; but, for fuel, it is scarcely to be found; and the deficiency is not supplied by coal or turf. The land chiefly arable; the farms large; labour cheap; the beasts chiefly horses, though oxen are occasionally employed. A singular instance is added, where keeping a he-goat in the stable, seemed to prevent the staggers in horses.

The

The first object of the Cotswold farmer is sheep: cattle are subordinate, and swine and horses only kept from their utility in the farm. Their marketable crops are barley and oats: turneps, vetches, peas, oats, saintfoin, and cultivated grasses are raised merely for the service of the stock: their arable system is nearly that of Norfolk. The Cotswold farmers plough when the ground is wet, for when dry it is trodden down by their long team, and the soil becomes hard from its binding quality. Their plough is large and unwieldy, consequently their ploughing is expensive. A practice in this district is much commended, and apparently very proper, is the hoeing of fallows. The store cattle go loose in the yards, and it has been found that they may be satiated with straw, or have it in too great plenty. Fattening bullocks may also have too much hay; and one farmer, whose conduct in general seems rational, gives it to them from the hand: for fattening, the beast should always eat with an appetite, since his improvement is not in proportion to the quantity eaten. Mildewed wheat is cut green, and the source of the disease being thus stopped, the wheat is said to ripen very well from the juices left in the reed. The soil is better calculated, in our author's opinion, for barley than for wheat. The observations on sheep, on folding, and on the cultivated grasses, particularly saintfoin, are extremely valuable; but our limits remind us that we must not expatiate too far.

The vale of Berkley is the segment of a circle, whose arc on the east is formed by the hills, and whose chord on the west is the Severn, a winding river, and which may be only styled a chord to give a distant idea of the form of the vale. The soil is a rich clayey loam; the produce grass; and the rents, as markets are distant, low; the staple is cheese*, which is said to be best when the cows graze on the foulest and most weedy land. The predominant species of grass is the cynosurus cristatus, the dog's tail. The north country breed of cows is often found, and attributed to the extension of the dairies, and the decline of breeding in Gloucestershire. If the dairies decline, as is said to be the case, the Gloucestershire breed will again appear to prevail. The dairy management of Berkley vale is next described; and the account concludes with some curious computations. The vale is said to contain 50,000 acres of surface, two-thirds of which is occupied from about seven to eight thousand cows (about four acres to a cow), which produce from 1000 to 1200 ton of cheese. This district also affords milk uncommonly rich, and the cheeses partake of this richness. Even from the wheys butter is made, which, when eaten fresh, is

* What is called double Gloucester is made in the vale of Berkley.

almost

almost equal to milk butter. The difference in price is not above a penny per pound. The produce of whey-butter is laid at half a pound a week from each cow; but it generally exceeds that amount. The article concludes with a description of the management of swine. In this vale the farmers think acorns wholesome food, though in other places they are said to harden the bacon. Perhaps, as our author observes, the whey corrects this quality; but we strongly suspect that the fault is imaginary, for we have seen hogs who had acorns in plenty, fat, juicy, and tender. We believe it is not generally known that hogs, even when acorns abound, will not feed wholly on them.

In the account of North Wiltshire there are many general remarks on cheese; and in Herefordshire there are many valuable observations on making cyder.—We are unwilling to hurry through these interesting subjects, so that we shall beg leave to resume the work on some future occasion.

Political Geography.. Introduction to the Statistical Tables of the principal Empires, Kingdoms, and States of Europe. 4to. 6s. in Boards, or 15s. with the Tables pasted on Canvas with Rollers. Lowndes.

IN our review of Mr. Zimmerman's Political Survey, we explained the nature and object of Statistics, or a comparative Enquiry into the Extent, Riches, Population, and Power of different Kingdoms. It was a science in its infancy, and has scarcely yet advanced beyond an imperfect knowledge of facts. On these we must afterwards build in our future system, when we shall perhaps be able to ascertain that degree of population, which contributes to the force and vigour of a kingdom, instead of impeding its exertions by an unwieldy mass; that kind and degree of commerce which will contribute to the activity of a nation, instead of exhausting it by attempts beyond its force; the proportion of public debt, which will rouse to activity, instead of depressing by its weight. These and many other enquiries, which are now discussed by visionary schemers, or confused by brilliant paradoxes, may be more fully elucidated by an attentive examination of facts. We must be still silent, for the facts are scarcely yet ascertained. Though M. Zimmerman has done much, some parts of his work must be necessarily defective. Our political geographer has corrected his errors and supplied his imperfections; but a future enquirer will find sufficient room for additional labours.

In a very judicious introduction, our author points out the utility of the science to the statesman and to the philosopher. He

He informs us what has been done, and pays his tribute of respect to Mr. Zimmerman, while he explodes the erroneous statements of Mr. Beaufort in his *Tableau Statistique de l'Europe*. He has given a comparative view of the area, population, and power of each different kingdom of Europe, particularly pointing out their situation, when compared with England. In this view, our situation is very flattering, and we think it accurately correct. Our author considers the population of England to be 8,100,000; of Scotland, 1,500,000; and of Ireland, 3,040,000. The trade of England is represented as equally flourishing; and our political geographer even defends the East-India trade. The following facts, from the French *Encyclopedie* (the edition at present publishing) we shall extract:

‘It is there stated that while all the other European nations together, purchased of Chinese commodities to the amount of 10,832,198 livres for cash, and only 1,103,100 for goods, that Great Britain purchased with her woollen manufactures to the amount of 2,000,000, with East and West India goods 3,570,000, and for cash only 5,443,566, being not quite one half the amount of the whole of her investments; whereas the other trading powers of Europe did not buy one-tenth with the produce of their industry, but paid nearly for the whole in hard money.’—

—‘Respecting the revenue of Great Britain, it is beyond comparison the largest in the world for the number of subjects, and extent of territory whereon it is raised; and which nothing but the active industry, and great circulating property of its inhabitants could enable them to yield †. But perhaps there is not any thing which so strongly contributes to the happiness of the subjects of this empire as the equality with which taxes are levied, and the due consideration had that the burden should not press too heavily upon the parts least able to sustain it. Compare the lower class of men in Great Britain with the same order in almost every other country in Europe, how greatly the scale preponderates in favour of the former! Regard the peasant of one of the most favoured nations, France, under what disadvantages will he appear when contrasted with the husbandman of England? But we shall see many of the disadvantages of the former accounted for, when the state of taxation in the two kingdoms is considered. Supposing the whole British empire to yield 18,000,000*l.* in revenue, paid by 12 millions of subjects, each person’s tax will average 30*s.* per annum, while

* See *Dictionnaire Encyclopedique*, par ordre de Matieres Economie politique—Tome I. de Commerce.

† The money in circulation throughout Great Britain has been by some supposed not to exceed 18 millions—by others computed as high as 30: a sum between the two, or nearly 24 millions, may be reasonably calculated, from the amount of the recoinage, &c. as generally circulating throughout Great Britain in gold and silver specie, since the era of peace.

the 24 million of French subjects, yielding 24,000,000 $\frac{1}{2}$ averages only 20s. each $\frac{1}{2}$; but among these, 200,000 of their number (the clergy) who enjoy an income of 5,000,000*l.* pay only 141,666*l.* $\frac{1}{2}$ per ann. or about 14s. each, notwithstanding the immensity of their possessions: and what they fail of paying in their natural proportion, as well as the great numbers of other high ranks, who enjoy exemptions, must be made up by an extra burden beyond their just average, upon the industrious part of the community.

Our author next gives the correctest account which we have yet seen of foreign money; the rates of exchange; and the rules for finding the value of different sums of money in pounds sterling.

The tables follow, and contain an account of the population; armed force; state of finances, &c. political constitution; agriculture, commerce, &c. with miscellaneous observations, chiefly historical, of the different kingdoms. The first table relates to Great Britain and Ireland; France and Spain. The second to Germany; Austria; Prussia; the Palatinate of the Rhine, and Electorate of Bavaria; the Electorate of Saxony, and the Electorate of Hanover. The third contains Holland; Russia; Denmark, and Norway; Sweden, and Portugal. The fourth relates to the Two Sicilies; Sardinia; the Pope's State; the Republic of Venice; Poland, and Lithuania; and the Turkish Empire. The titles of the different kingdoms are placed in a perpendicular column, and the subjects described are at the head of each table; so that, by carrying the eye from the top to the bottom of each column, the comparative state of the different kingdoms, in the circumstances to which the column re-

† Mr. Knox, in his General View of the British Empire, says, that "the revenue and expenditure of France have been gradually increasing since the reign of Louis XIV. and they amount at present to 18,000,000*l.* This sum may sound high to an Englishman, but was France taxed proportionably to Great Britain, its revenue would probably exceed 24,000,000*l.*" France has since been taxed, with a view to raise above 24,000,000*l.* and the expences increased considerably beyond 26 millions; but the result turns out that the duties have been unproductive, and the state reduced in 1788, to a situation so nearly bordering upon bankruptcy, as to stop payment of interest, and annuities due to the public creditors.

‡ This is speaking of the taxation in the aggregate, for there are parts of France which pay a much higher portion of the taxes than other districts, and it consequently averages higher in those parts than 20s. In the same manner, the proportion of taxes paid by the inhabitants of England may raise their average to 40s. each person.

§ "*Don Gratuit de Clergé.*" Le Clergé paie tous les cinq ans au Roi un Don Gratuit, d'environ 16 à 18 millions, qui peut par conséquent être regardé comme équivalent à un revenu annuel de 3,400,000 livres par année."—or 141,666*l.* sterling. See Collection de Comptes Rendus, &c. Paris, 1783, page 199.

lates,

lates, is easily seen. Our readers will observe also, that those kingdoms, which the reader would probably wish to compare, are in the same table.

We have not seen a more convenient mode of arrangement; more complete, or more correct accounts. The few errors, which have occurred to us, have consisted in a little exaggeration. This is a fault, however, which has formerly prevailed in a greater degree: we are approaching the level of truth; but, in every instance, we have not yet arrived at it.

The Art of War at Sea; or, Naval Tactics reduced to New Principles: with a New Order of Battle. Illustrated with Copper-Plates. Translated from the French of Viscount de Grenier. By the Chevalier de Sausséil. 4to. 10s Hooper.

THIS new system of naval tactics is not only curious as a scientific work, but as it contains some observations respecting the naval actions of the last war. M. de Grenier, when applied to by the translator, who apologised for *being obliged* to insert a note which contains an opinion different from his own, concerning the event of the actions of lord Keppel and admiral Byron off Ushant and Grenada, gives some singular remarks. He contends, that the French fleet kept their lights up during the whole night; that they knew of the design of the English admiral to attack them the next day; that the English had the wind but did not follow. If we recollect rightly, lord Keppel denied that the lights were kept in; and this observation was never contradicted. It is now in point, since by the word 'follow,' M. de Grenier allows, that the French *did not stay*. In the action off Grenada, admiral Byron chose to take the tack opposite to Grenada; the French preferred the leeward; so that they could not easily meet. We cannot, even with the plan of the manœuvres before us, see the fault of admiral Byron's choice, for it was the only one left which a man of sound professional judgment would have taken; but the count d'Estaing, probably for some reasons equally good, avoided the same spot; and yet the English are accused of running away. Again: in 'Conflans' engagement, the event is said to have been decided by the English fleet breaking through a weak part of the line: in reality, M. de Conflans' was an inferior fleet, and was never attacked in line. It was a flight and a route rather than a battle. In the decisive victory of lord Rodney, the event was undoubtedly owing to his breaking the French line; and where one part of a line is weak, and the enemy spirited and able, the same event will follow the same conduct: where the line is strengthened, as our author recommends,
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it will be avoided; but where the forces are equal, it will be at the risk of this strengthened line being out-flanked.

The work itself is the first part of a system of naval tactics: the remainder is to follow, and we shall, on this account, only notice those parts where M. de Grenier aims at improving the practice of former ages. In the usual line, the ships are kept close-hauled in each other's wake, at different distances; either a cable or half a cable's length asunder, according to the wind, the weather, or the enemy opposed to them. Our author's first object is to draw part of the enemy's fleet out of the whole body, and keep the detached fleet to windward. This plan, however, must argue a great want of professional skill in the enemy, and a dereliction of the steady English scheme of keeping the fleet compact and in line. In reality, as lord Howe once observed on a similar occasion, the admiral who would permit this mode of proceeding would be ridiculous in the eyes of all the naval powers in Europe. But as the compacted English line has been found impenetrable, and as the victories of our navy have been owing to the intrepid conduct of our admirals in breaking the line of the enemies, M. de Grenier observes that it seemed

‘—— necessary to deviate from the prescribed rules, in order to find out a more perfect system of tactics, wherein all the chief movements of a fleet should bear a relation to its positions; wherein all the forces of that fleet should be so disposed, that the two extremities of a line of battle had nothing to fear from the enemy; wherein all the squadrons might be put in action without any confusion, either collectively or separately; wherein their separation from each other should no longer be considered as a disadvantage; wherein the movements of each division might be executed within the reach of the enemy's shot, at the very moment of the attack, without any risk of being endangered by his fire; wherein, in short, all the forces of a fleet should be so disposed, as to be able always to attack with advantage, and to defend in the best manner possible.’

In the *new* order of battle, therefore,

‘—— the fleet, composed of three divisions, will be ranged on the three sides of a regular lozenge, formed by the intersecting of the two close-hauled lines (instead of being in one single line, as in the usual order of battle), and wherein one of the divisions will always be ranged in order of battle, while the two others resting upon the first ship a-head and the last a-stern of that division, will be formed on the close hauled line opposite, and will stand on chequer-wise on the same tack as the ships which are in a line of battle.

‘In this situation, the two divisions whose ships will steer chequer-wise, will serve to cover the headmost and the sternmost

most ships of the line of battle, to hinder the enemy from penetrating into that line (should he, from the reasons before deduced, have an opportunity so to do); it will serve to repel the enemy, were he to attempt to double the rear, in order to place it between two fires; and, finally, they will be able to fall, almost instantly, on one of the divisions of the enemy's fleet, and detach it from the rest, in order to range that detached part with all possible advantage.'

This is the system which our author explains by diagrams; but we have little dread from the effect of these refinements. We trust too much to the professional skill of our commanders, and to the spirit of our seamen, to fear the event. It would be to little purpose to combat this plan on paper; but we trust that we could show it to be a merely visionary refinement. In the rest of the work the author explains the usual terms, particularly those which he employs in a new sense; the general orders, their utility, and the manœuvres necessary to pass from one to the other, and the advantages derived from the new order opposed to the usual close-hauled line. Much of the reasoning depends on the diagrams, and much of it is fanciful. The author seems, however, sanguine and zealous, his translator appears to be able and judicious.

Essays, Philosophical, Historical, and Literary. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Dilly.

THE task of the essayist is a difficult one: confined in his limits, he has seldom any choice but to be popular and superficial, or more deep and imperfect. On this account, the Essay has chiefly been confined to subjects of taste, of literature, of fancy, except where some separate question was the only one which required discussion. Our present author, who possesses the rare faculty of compressing numerous ideas and a complicated subject into a narrow space, has not been afraid of ranging beyond the usual bounds of an essayist. His subjects are not often popular, and his discussions are rarely superficial. His language is clear and forcible: it is distinguished by a correct precision, and by conciseness not laboured into obscurity, but which renders no common attention frequently indispensable.

The first Essay is on liberty and necessity, subjects not generally understood, and not often explained with accuracy or propriety. Our author in his view of the question, for he has only stated the arguments on each side, gives more than an outline. In fact, little can be added to it of importance, for he has selected the best arguments with such care, and pointed them with so much skill and impartiality, that we know no

author whom we could with more safety recommend to those who wish for some acquaintance with this metaphysical question, without great labour and much time employed. We think we perceive him lean to the side of necessity, and this suspicion is confirmed by his other opinions in the subsequent Essays.

Our author is a warm but rational admirer of Shakspeare. His excellencies he ascribes to his genius, and to his pointed accuracy in supporting his characters. His fancy, his poetical fire, and the forcible magic of his language and his imagery are also added. When he endeavours to discriminate the characters of some of Shakspeare's heroines, Desdemona, Imogen, Juliet, and Ophelia, we cannot so fully agree with him, for the conduct of either in a similar situation, would not be unsuitable to the others.

The Essay on the reign and character of queen Elizabeth is an able apology for the despotic daughter of Henry. It may be allowed, that the constitution was not then defined with the accuracy with which its different parts are now distinguished; and that those points which the law had defined were not generally known, and very seldom examined. These may excuse, in part, Elizabeth's conduct, but it will not wholly destroy the stain which modern enquiry has discovered. The arbitrary acts of the council and the star-chamber still subsisted; and if they did not, as the essayist asserts, 'more disturb the public tranquillity than the eccentric motions of comets interrupt the general order and harmony of the solar system,' their existence and occasional employment are sufficient to establish the character which has been given of this reign. It is true, that the confidence of the people in her good intentions gave a force to her edicts, and a favourable hue to her most despotic actions; while her general popularity, her artful yielding on particular occasions, above all, her economy, with the little assistance which she required from her parliaments, endeared her to the nations which she governed, and her memory was embalmed in the idle, weak, profuse, and arbitrary measures of her successors. Our author has fully proved that she was able, artful, and successful; but we must still think that her popularity was occasionally owing to dissimulation rather than a regard for liberty; that her reign, though a brilliant one in our annals, was not a desirable period, if we could choose the æra of our existence. In the following extract, which we select as a specimen of the clearness and precision of our author's historical researches, enough is allowed, we think, to establish what we have observed.

‘ In the beginning of the seventeenth century, the maxims of the

the reign of Henry VIII. were become obsolete. Men were accustomed to another mode of government; their minds were occupied by the recollection of the glorious and prosperous times of Elizabeth, when uninterrupted affection and harmony subsisted between the sovereign and the people; and if the prerogative was exerted occasionally in an irregular and arbitrary manner, those very exertions were seen, or were thought at least to be necessary, and no apprehensions were entertained that they were the result of a fixed and preconcerted plan to enslave the nation. Charles I. was a tyrant as well as Henry VIII. but he attempted the part at a period far more unfavourable to the success of his designs. Mr. Hume pretends that the circumstances in which he was placed, were in the highest degree critical; and plausibly apologises for him, by saying that his capacity was not equal to situations of such extreme delicacy: but I cannot conceive that his situation at the commencement of his reign was to be compared in point of difficulty with that of Elizabeth. In the progress of it, indeed, it must be confessed, that he frequently involved himself by his own imprudence, or rather insatiation, in circumstances of such extreme difficulty, that had he even possessed the capacity of Elizabeth, he could not have extricated himself with honour. But I cannot perceive that it required more than a common share of common sense to see that the temper of the times would not bear even those stretches of prerogative, which were thought necessary, or excusable at least, in the days of Elizabeth; much less any wanton or novel exertions of power; and least of all would it bear an open and almost avowed design to reduce the nation to a state of such abject and unreserved submission, that, if it had succeeded, Mr. Hume might indeed have had reason sufficient for his assertion, respecting the resemblance of the English government to that of Turkey.'

In the greatest and most culpable act of her reign, the murder of Mary, it is yet doubted whether Elizabeth were really guilty. Our author contends that she was not, and produces some arguments which have been already alledged. Yet she *did* sign the warrant; and if she really at last repented, it is plain there was a time when she designed the death of her rival.

The Essay on Christianity is a very connected and able defence of our religion: nothing can add to its force, or perhaps to its effect. The answer to Mr. Hume's argument, in his Essay on Miracles, is not, we think, equally successful. It might have been treated more shortly, for it is a sophism. 'The established laws of nature are founded either on experience or on testimony. Of remote events, we have the same evidence of their existence or their violation; and Mr. Hume's argument would equally apply to prove, that the earth did

. Vol. LXVIII. Dec. 1789. I i move

move round the sun in the same period, at the time of our Saviour, as it does at present; or indeed to prove that the sun never shone, till the first moment that our own experience convinced us of it. The argument, though specious, is really trifling.

The sixth Essay, on Hereditary Succession, contains some singular and some just remarks. The Salique law of France ought, our author thinks, to be established in England, since, if the crown devolves to a princess married to a foreign monarch, it might introduce the customs of other nations, and a different race might be seated on the throne. There is much good sense in these observations, but the present numerous family of sons renders any apprehensions groundless; yet, in this moment of security, it might be right to prevent future inconveniencies, as at this time no precautions could be styled personal. The pretensions of our kings to the crown of France, are styled preposterous, and the heroes of Cressy and Agincourt, the Quixotes of a mob. If these wars really laid the foundation of the rivalry between England and France, and continued an hereditary competition, they may be truly said to be unfortunate; but on the other hand they may have inspired that advantageous popular opinion of national and personal superiority.

A passage in Dr. Blair's sermons, in which he considers the allotment of real happiness as proportioned to the virtue of each individual, is the text on which the subsequent Essay is founded. Virtue is not, in our author's opinion, connected with temporal happiness; but it is unquestionably certain, that religion is of essential use and importance in promoting the temporal interests and felicity of mankind. At first view, an argument of this nature may appear to contribute to weaken the influence of virtue, and of course give a dangerous preponderance to vicious motives; but in reality, it traces an uncertain undefined position to its true principles, and discriminates its object with accuracy: so that, on the whole, the cause of virtue and religion is a gainer by the attempt.

The Essay on Government and Civil Liberty is designed as a defence of the system of Locke against the attacks of Mr. Soame Jennings. All men, says Mr. Locke, are by nature equal: Mr. Jennings denies it, and we think with justice. Change the terms; say that the pretensions and privileges of men to power are naturally the same, and the position is true. Mr. Jennings' arguments are perhaps a little too ludicrous; and yet we suspect, that they are well founded. Men are not equal in bodily perfections; some are stronger, and others more beautiful. In a state of nature, those supe-
riorities

riorities must necessarily give a pre-eminence. Again, some are more able, more sagacious, and more judicious; and there is no despotism so arbitrary or so powerful, as that of a strong mind over a weak one. What, in either case, becomes of his natural claim? it is an abstract proposition which can never be reduced to practice; and when applied must fall to the ground with the system built on it. Our author has already taken off one part of it, the social contract. All men, says Mr. Locke, are born free: negatur, says Mr. Jennings; which he supports by explaining a little ludicrously our various modes of slavery both *before* and *after* birth. If our essayist will explain Mr. Locke's opinion, and say he means that no one had a *right* to assume a power of controlling and punishing another, we may admit it as an abstract proposition; but it is one of which the application is equally difficult, while strength of body and mind are unequally distributed. In other points, our author's opposition to Mr. Jennings is very successful; and it is always with pleasure we follow a supporter of Locke. Though on the subject of government we feel ourselves obliged to range among his antagonists, we do it with reluctance, and often distrust. In the second part, our author opposes some of the remarks of Dr. Price. In his definitions of liberty, the three first species are entirely personal; the fourth relates to the power of a society to govern itself: in short, though more exceptions may be made to Dr. Price's definition of civil liberty than our author has mentioned, it is sufficient to say, from the work before us, that in every part of the disquisition respecting civil liberty, Dr. Price mistakes liberty for power.

The tenth Essay is on the study of metaphysics, and is designed to obviate the misrepresentations and mistaken opinions of Mr. Knox, who endeavours to depreciate the merit of this science, and who mistakes its object. Our author has done well, but he might perhaps have done more. Metaphysics rationally conducted, is a science 'fairly worth the seven.' It is the history of the human mind; the sublime contemplation of what is about, beyond, and infinitely above us; but in this region of uncertainty, it has happened that fancy instead of close investigation, and imagination instead of judgment, have held the reins and guided the car. Perhaps our author, in his turn, is a little too severe on mathematics; yet he has pointed out the objects of the mathematician, and the metaphysician or the moralist, with accuracy: the one considers positive relations, the other probable connexions. The one is the science of certainty, while the other sciences only approach towards it, by the number of the connexions and the closeness of the relations. Hence the ma-

thematician is awkward and perplexed when he reasons on general subjects, while those engaged in other enquiries, find mathematics dry and uninteresting. Our author is, therefore, correct in saying that this science does not teach the student to reason; but we may add that it gives him a habit of close accurate attention, which renders reasoning easy; and of discrimination, which often detects fallacious connections and apparent relations. Our essayist is not partial to Dr. Beattie; and we have never held this class of metaphysicians, or their leading principles, in high estimation.

The observations on style, and on English versification, are correct and elegant, though the author recurs too frequently to that delicacy of perception and accuracy of judgment which, when united, we call taste; and is a little too severe on lord Kaimes. The philosophy of criticism has been lately much decried, and authors have slighted this infant science (we call it infant, though so old as Aristotle, since it has been so carelessly nurtured), because it has not the strength and the perfection of maturity. We are persuaded that there is no rule the correctest taste can suggest, which may not be explained: but we will not put philosophy on so despotic a throne, as to reject what she cannot explain. In subjects of taste, the ultimate decision should belong to taste alone; and we shall regret only that the philosophy is so little cultivated, as to be unequal to the explanation. The defects in the style of sir William Temple we must admit; but in his æra, when elegant English prose scarcely existed, our author seems too eager to discover faults, and not sufficiently anxious to commend beauties.

The thirteenth Essay, on the use of reason in connexion with religion, is an admirable one. Our author discriminates with great accuracy what points are the object of reason, and what are to be decided only by revelation. He admits not, however, of articles of faith, which are in opposition to reason, and puts the Trinity (a doctrine which, in another Essay, he observes, is not found in his Bible), on a footing with transubstantiation. If we are required to believe doctrines of this kind, our reason, he observes, seems to be given us in vain. Perhaps in this point he goes too far: what is positively taught, and we suppose the doctrine of the Trinity to be so, we should believe, though we are not able to explain it. Our essayist would allow the right of private judgment, and destroy the authority of the catholic church, without admitting that Christians in general are qualified to judge for themselves. In reality, when this point is pushed to its utmost, we are almost led to admit, as Boote does in one of his comedies, that the

Liberty of the press is an invaluable privilege, provided no use be made of it. We would, however, select one passage from this Essay, where we think the argument is enforced with unusual strength.

‘Reason then is the acknowledged judge of the evidences of Christianity: but the danger is, lest we should require a degree of evidence which reason has no right to exact. If the evidence rises to probability, we should act most irrationally in rejecting it, because it falls short of moral certainty!—as justly might we reject moral certainty because it falls short of mathematical demonstration. Whoever attends on the evidences of the Christian religion with impartiality and candour, must be compelled to allow the probability at least of its divine origin. In this case how will reason direct a man to act? to remain in a state of perpetual scepticism is equally irksome and difficult; the balance will ultimately incline either to the one side or the other. Now to reject a probability is to embrace an improbability: let those then who incline to infidelity in consequence of the objections to which Christianity is liable, and the difficulty they find in answering those objections satisfactorily,—let such men reflect upon the insuperable difficulties with which that infidelity is itself attended:—let them take the trouble to frame not only a negative but a positive creed, and they will soon see how much weaker and more exposed to objection every particular and distinct scheme of infidelity is than Christianity—how much less the positive evidence in its favour—how much greater the inconsistencies and improbabilities connected with it.’

The Essay on education contains many just remarks. Our author prefers a public school; but it is only at the age of twelve or thirteen, when classical knowledge is in some degree attained; French fully understood; history, mathematics, and geography at least known in their elements. Travelling in the usual methods is injurious, in his opinion: it is probably only useless. When Rousseau recommends keeping the child in ignorance till he can judge impartially, we believe (for we have not the book at hand), that he speaks of religious tenets, not of moral duties. In the Essay before us, he is reprehended as if he advised the tutor to postpone not only the religious, but the moral instructions, to a later period.

Some remarks on the twenty-first chapter of Mr. Locke’s Essay on the Human Understanding follow, where he treats of power as connected with liberty and necessity. Our essayist suspects that he has embarrassed the subject to avoid the odium which was thrown on the Necessarians, who, as they were connected with Hobbes and Spinoza, were consequently classed with Fatalists and Atheists. He has examined the

chapter with this view, and has established his opinion on a good foundation: but this is not the only instance where Mr. Locke seems to have been afraid of following his own principles. His doctrine respecting ideas, would carry him, we think, to the system of Berkeley, if pursued — vidit & abstinuit.

We were much pleased with the review of the reign of Charles II. a period, which to an Englishman is both interesting and humiliating; for while England was the arbiter of Europe, her king was a pensionary of France. This review contains, however, but an outline; and on the whole, an able, but not a complete or a masterly one. Our author disbelieves the reality of Titus Oates' plot, admits of Barillon's evidence, which accuses Ruffel, Sidney, and Hollis of having received bribes from France, and accounts for it as we have already done, without prejudice to their characters, by observing that these bribes did not influence them to act otherwise than their own judgments would have directed for the national benefit and advantage. In delineating the character of Clarendon, our author is a little inconsistent; since in p. 290. we are told that 'his ideas of regal authority were extravagantly high; and in p. 296. that 'he could never be brought to support any designs which might be formed for the extension of the prerogative.'

The observations on the character and writings of St. Evremont are pleasing and curious. This amiable Frenchman is represented as not superficial, but concise, from that superiority of judgment and understanding which will not admit of the addition of what is foreign and inapplicable. His poetical talents are said to have been moderate; his religion a little disputable, from a mistake not uncommon at this time in France, where the absurdities of the Romish faith are connected too intimately with Christianity itself.

The strictures on Mr. Walpole's Catalogue of Noble and Royal Authors are just and entertaining. As it is not easy to give an account of this Essay, we shall select a specimen:

'The unfortunate earl of Essex furnishes one of the most entertaining articles in the catalogue. I am happy to agree with Mr. Walpole in the high ideas he appears to entertain of the character and government of queen Elizabeth; nor am I displeased at the exposure of her foibles, if accompanied with a proper sense and acknowledgment of her many great and admirable qualities and virtues. I do not, however, deem quite so highly as Mr. Walpole of her great and unfortunate favourite. The earl of Essex was, doubtless, a man of great natural parts; but, intoxicated with royal favour and popular applause, he was guilty of absurdities and extravagancies which would have disgraced

graced any man who had pretensions to common sense. The last fatal enterprise in which he was engaged, was an astonishing proof to what desperate extremities his pride and passion were capable of transporting him. He was possessed of all those splendid and delusive qualities which are calculated to captivate the populace; but the queen's partiality for him did not prevent her from discerning the danger to be apprehended from so turbulent and ungovernable a spirit; and if he really declared that his life was inconsistent with the queen's safety, it is probable that the queen and her ministers were as good judges of the truth of the declaration as even Mr. Walpole. "How was he dangerous, or could he be?" Mr. W. asks: — "His wild attempt on the city had demonstrated his impotence." This is certainly a curious and perfectly novel mode of vindication. A man who has committed one act of political frenzy, may easily be supposed capable of another; and the failure of one treasonable attempt, does not quite amount to a demonstration that no danger is to be apprehended from the next.'

In the Essay on materialism our author gives a short account of the arguments on each side, and adds some observations peculiarly his own. He seems to think that there is no distinct immaterial principle, but that perception is a quality superadded to matter: or perhaps he might have spoken more correctly, if he had considered it as added to matter peculiarly organized. We hazarded a similar idea lately with respect to vitality, in our review of Dr. Denman's Introduction to Midwifery. But every opinion of this kind must be received with caution and distrust; it is only after a very attentive and careful examination, that it should be considered in a better light than a possible hypothesis.

The twentieth Essay is on genius; and its great object is to criticise Gerard's essay, who, in reality, has with great care given a definition which he has with equal anxiety afterwards evolved. His book may be compared to a Gordian knot, which he can best untye who first devised it. Genius has nothing to do with the work, or his analysis. Dr. Johnson's definition of genius is splendid and luminous. We shall contrast it with that of the essayist.

"The true genius, (says Dr. Johnson) is a mind of great general powers, accidentally determined to some particular direction:" and elsewhere he styles genius "that quality, without which judgment is cold, and knowledge is inert; that energy which collects, combines, amplifies, and animates; always investigating, always aspiring; in its widest searches still longing to go forward, always imagining something greater than it knows, always endeavouring more than it can do."

'In a word, by capacity I mean an ability for acquiring know-

knowledge. By genius I mean an eminent and uncommon degree of capacity, including that assemblage, or aggregate of mental qualities, usually associated with it. I mean that energy of mind which is not only capable of receiving, but of exciting vivid and powerful impressions. I include imagination, judgment, understanding, invention, and enthusiasm; and though I will not pretend to affirm that genius cannot exist whenever a remarkable deficiency or disproportion appears in any of its component properties, yet I will venture to say, that genius cannot exist where all these properties are not to be found in a certain degree.'

In the subsequent part of the Essay, we think our author does not distinguish between genius, as he has defined it, and strength of mind, independent of the igneous spark which is kindled by the slightest touch, and illuminates with the most brilliant splendour. Lord North's faults, he says, were owing to want of genius: they were rather owing to the want of that force of mind, that extensive comprehension, which make a part of the complex idea of genius, than to this faculty in its whole extent. Women, in equal circumstances, he is of opinion, have as much genius as men. Here is the opposite error: they have equal, perhaps superior, quickness of perception, and brilliancy of imagination, but they want comprehensive views and strength of mind, as well as, in many instances, of judgment. In the closet, the man of genius, he says, loses his pre-eminence. He again forgets his definition. Does he lose his energy, his judgment, his invention, which the man of genius must possess in a superior degree? If we were to characterise our author from this work, we should say that he possesses great strength of mind, energy, discrimination, and judgment; but that his imagination was not brilliant, that sometimes, and sometimes only, the comprehension which distinguishes genius, is less conspicuous, while his subjects afforded little room for the display of imagination.

The remarks on Pope's Essay on Man are very judicious; but we think that the consequence which our author and the world draw from Pope's, or rather Bolingbroke's philosophy, unjust. If he endeavours 'to vindicate the ways of God to man,' without glancing at a future state, he is not much more reprehensible than the divine, who endeavours, a priori, to demonstrate the being and attributes of God. If revelation and different arguments come in aid, we may still avail ourselves of the others; and some of the considerations in the Essay on Man are strictly true and fundamentally just. Perhaps we might as safely draw another conclusion, and from the weakness and futility of many of his arguments, show that a future state is necessary to complete the vindication.

Obser.

Observations on the Genius and Spirit of Christianity, with some strictures on a few of Mr. Jennings' peculiar opinions, follow; and they are instanced in its philanthropy, its simplicity, and its rationality. One striking passage in this Essay we shall point out. The Christian religion, our author observes, subsisted long before St. Paul wrote his celebrated Epistles, and 'it is doing Christianity mighty wrong to deduce from these Epistles an abstruse system of speculative theology, and to pronounce that system essential to Christianity.' It may, however, be asked, how did Christianity exist? it was in no formal system by its institutor, in no written code, but in the hearts of the apostles. The life of our Saviour was written by three of these; and so much of his doctrine as seemed essential to salvation, was mixed with the narrative; but they have told us that they contained not the whole of his discourses, and it is supposed that St. John's Gospel, where more abstruse doctrines are contained than in St. Paul's Epistles, was written to supply the defect. The existence, therefore, of Christianity, previous to the Epistles, is no argument against their doctrines; and their internal evidence is no objection to our author, for if the apostles differed among themselves, and 'it were proper in such a case to range under the banners of any party, I should be tempted (he adds) to exclaim "I am of Paul."'

The twenty-third Essay, on the slave-trade, is a very valuable one, and contains pointed and judicious answers to the principal arguments of its supporters. Our author would secure good treatment to the negroes, while he gradually proceeded in the total abolition.

The last Essay is on the national debt; in which our author appears to be no mean financier. He strongly commends Mr. Pitt's proceeding in the saving and appropriation of the annual million, and examines shortly some other more speculative schemes. — But we must now leave this author, our attention to his work is the strongest evidence of our respect for his abilities; and his candour will, we doubt not, excuse our occasionally differing from him, while we labour equally with him in the investigation of truth, and have not, we trust, sullied our remarks by captiousness or petulance.

A complete Dictionary of the English Language, both with regard to Sound and Meaning. To which is prefixed, A Prosodical Grammar. By T. Sheridan. A. M. Second Edition. 4to. 16s. in Boards. Dilly.

THIS edition of Mr. Sheridan's Dictionary is introduced to the public with all the author's last corrections and improvements, and, as we find, with additional improvements by the

the editor. The Grammar, with the Directions to Foreigners, &c. had occupied much of Mr. Sheridan's attention; and to render the work more extensively useful, he carefully selected a number of words (amounting to a thousand), and inserted them in their alphabetical order, with their peculiar marks of pronunciation. Since his death, the publisher has been favoured with a supplemental list of words, which have been arranged, explained, and accented, under the direction of a gentleman who was appointed by Mr. Sheridan to superintend the work during its progress through the press.

Of the former edition of this work we gave an account in the year 1780*. We then observed, with the applause which is justly due to so useful an undertaking, that the author had endeavoured to point out the true pronunciation of every common word in the English language; but, at the same time, we expressed some doubts with regard to the fugitive oral authority upon which he had established his system. He professed to have taken his standard of pronunciation from the practice of the English court in the reign of queen Anne, when that language was spoken in the greatest purity, and where some of the most distinguished characters of later times (the late lord Chesterfield and others) were initiated into life.

Allowing, however, this observation all the force which the author ascribes to it, no positive inference can be drawn from the pronunciation of those eminent personages, when it appears undeniably, from the practice of the most celebrated writers in the reign of queen Anne, that the true pronunciation of the English language was, even during that splendid period, in a state of great uncertainty and indecision. The want of an established standard of the language was a subject of regret, with Swift, in particular; and there surely was sufficient reason for his liberal anxiety, when we find that himself, Mr. Pope, and other great authorities, differed extremely in their manner of accenting a number of words. In our account of the first edition of the present work, we laid before our readers several examples of this remarkable diversity, which is indeed so flagrant, as to shake the foundations of the general authority adduced by Mr. Sheridan in support of his system.

Analogy is admitted by all grammarians to be a principle of great extent in the pronunciation of language, though there are many anomalies or deviations from it in the English; and another principle, of no small consideration, is euphony. We formerly adduced instances, to show, that Mr. Sheridan had,

* See Crit. Rev. Vol. XLIX. p. 337, &c. and Vol. L. p. 1, &c.

in our opinion, violated both these acknowledged principles of pronunciation; and we wish we could now add, that he has made some alterations in his standard. But we are sorry to find that he has adhered to his original decisions; in some cases, against such evidence both of analogy and authority, as is, in our opinion, indisputably entitled to regard. The words added in the present edition are generally such as must naturally be regulated in their pronunciation by those formerly accented by Mr. Sheridan.

With regard to the editor of the work, which, with all its imperfections, is highly valuable, we have only to observe, that he seems to have executed his part with attention, though it were easy to point out several words, of frequent use, and undoubted propriety, which he has not thought proper to insert.

A Caution to Gentlemen who use Sheridan's Dictionary. To which are added, for the Assistance of Foreigners and Natives, Selected Rules for pronouncing English with Precision and Elegance. 8vo. 1s. Turner.

AFTER what we have said in the preceding article, it may naturally be supposed, that we cannot differ much in opinion from an author who recommends caution in the use of Mr. Sheridan's Dictionary. We certainly acquiesce with him in the propriety of such conduct; and we do it the more readily, as, while he censures the defects, he is not blind to the extraordinary merits of the lexicographer.

With respect to the examples of the former kind, which he points out, several of them have previously received our sanction, in our review of the former edition of the Dictionary; and in the others, we think the author's observations are, in general, well founded. He reduces Mr. Sheridan's errors under five distinct heads, contributing either to impropriety or inelegance, exclusive of which, there occur some additional remarks, and a few rules concerning pronunciation. The author appears to be guided in his observations by a due regard to the established power of the letters, as well as to euphony.

Phædon; or, the Death of Socrates. By Moses Mendelssohn. Translated from the German. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Printed for the Author.

THE *Phædon* of Plato is the most admired production which ancient philosophy has left us concerning the immortality of the soul, and affords a magnificent display of the truth of that

that doctrine, as manifested by the light of nature and human reason. Many of the arguments it contains, however, whether we ascribe them to Socrates, or to the founder of the ancient academy, will appear to modern readers to be rather metaphysical and ingenious, than satisfactory and convincing.

On this account, the author of the German translation, rejecting the authority of the original in many parts, has endeavoured to make Socrates speak as a philosopher of the eighteenth century; an attempt in which, we acknowledge he has not been entirely unsuccessful; though, at the same time, we think, that in conformity to the principle he adopted, he might justly have carried his alterations to some greater extent. In particular, he might have expunged the plurality of the gods, wherever that idea occurred in the Greek production. Nor was he less at liberty to have omitted mentioning the authority of augurs, and the entrails of victims, in times when a more enlightened philosophy has exploded those ancient superstitions.

As a specimen of the present version, we shall lay before our readers an extract, taken from a part near the conclusion of this beautiful and celebrated dialogue.

“Socrates, you have convinced us that there is a future life to man; but tell us also where our departed spirits shall inhabit? In what etherial region will they dwell? How will they be employed? What reward will the virtuous souls meet with? And will the vicious be enlightened and reclaimed?”

“If any person puts these questions to me, I shall say to him, ‘Friend, you ask me what is beyond my province to answer. I have led you through all the windings of the maze, and shewn you its outlet; other guides may conduct you farther. Whether the souls of the impious and wicked will suffer frost or heat, hunger or thirst, will sink in the morasses of Acherusia, pass their time in gloomy Tartarus, or be tossed on the flames of Phlegethon until they are purified? Whether the blessed will breathe pure heavenly æther upon a radiant mount of gold and precious stones, bask themselves in the blushes of the splendid morning, and enjoy perpetual youth, while they drink inspiring draughts of nectar? These are questions which I am totally unable to answer. If our poets and mythologists know better than me, let them communicate their instruction to others. The cause of humanity can receive no hurt from the play of their imagination. With respect to myself, I am content with feeling a conviction that the eye of heaven is perpetually upon me; that its divine providence and justice will watch over me in the next, as it has protected me in this life; and that my real happiness consists in the beauties and perfections of my soul. These perfections are, temperance, justice, charity, benevolence, knowledge of the supreme being, unceasing efforts to accomplish his views, and resignation to his
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divine will. These are the blessed felicities which await me in the futurity which now opens before me. Thither I hasten. More I desire not to know to make me set out cheerfully upon my journey. You, Simmias, Cebes, and my other friends, will follow me, each in his turn. I may now use the words of the tragic poet, and say, "Inexorable fate beckons to me. It is now time to go into the bath. I think it will be more decent to bathe before I take the poison, that the women may not have the trouble of washing my body after it is dead."

"So be it, said Crito, as Socrates gave over speaking. But what have you to leave in charge to your friends or me to do, respecting your children and private affairs? How shall we live to give you pleasure?"

"By living, Crito, as I have long since recommended to you. I have nothing farther to add. If you entertain a just respect for yourself, you cannot fail to live agreeably to virtue, and my wishes, independent of any promise, you may make me. But if you neglect yourself, and do not follow the path which I have pointed out to you this day, as well as formerly, it will be to no purpose to make me any promises at present."

Mr. Cullen has, on a former occasion, given laudable proofs of his industry *; and the work now before us affords another instance of the same kind. The translation appears to be executed with fidelity. The account of the life and character of Socrates, prefixed to Phædon, is a useful appendage.

History of the late Revolution in the Dutch Republic. 8vo. 4s.
in Boards. Edwards.

IN November 1787†, we gave an account of a production, written on the same subject with that now before us. The former work began with a view of the constitution of the republic, and afterwards related the history of its internal affairs, from the year 1780, to the commencement of hostilities in June 1787. The present one, proceeding on a familiar plan, gives a slight sketch of the Dutch constitution, some knowledge of which is necessary for comprehending the subsequent narrative; and then recites the history of the United Provinces, from the year 1747, when the office of Stadtholder was revived in the person of the late prince of Orange, to the termination of the domestic commotions, in 1787. The present work, therefore, commences at an earlier, and concludes at a later period than the former; but is much less minute in the detail both of the constitution and the history. The au-

* See Crit. Rev. Vol. lxiii. p. 410.

† See Crit. Rev. Vol. lxiv. p. 353.

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thor, however, appears to have considered the subject with great attention, and sufficiently compensates for the conciseness by the comprehension of his narrative. We shall lay before our readers a specimen, selected from a part of the work the most interesting to a subject of this country.

‘ The conduct of the English cabinet, in thus voluntarily adding the republic to their already numerous list of enemies, was at the time considered abroad as an act of despair. This vigorous measure, however, besides that it raised the spirits of the British nation, and disconcerted their enemies, was perhaps justified by the circumstances of the times. The insolent language used by the merchants of Amsterdam in their memorials, proved beyond a doubt that the faction were determined to try to its utmost extent the forbearance of Great Britain ; and it was evident, that the court of Versailles, who were completely masters of the republic, would force it into a war, whenever its offensive interference should suit their purposes better than its apparent neutrality. A rupture therefore was inevitable ; and it could not take place at a better moment than when Great Britain was armed, and the republic unprepared for defence : besides, it was of the utmost importance to begin the war before the Dutch should have acceded to the armed neutrality. Had that event taken place, the Northern courts might have thought it necessary to protect their new allies with the whole force of the confederacy ; the armed neutrality would have become an armed mediation ; and Great Britain would have been compelled to abjure her entire code of maritime law, or to carry on her trade in neutral vessels. In this case, the Dutch would have engrossed all the advantages proposed by the armed association ; they would have carried away from the Northern powers the whole Baltic trade ; and would have become, for the second time, the sole carriers of Europe.

‘ The advantages thus offered to them were so evident and so excessive, that they created alarm and suspicion. Instead of attributing to the intrigues of count Panin, or to the caprice of the empress, the formation of a league so obviously destructive of the commercial interests of Russia, the Dutch politicians almost universally apprehended from it some secret design of betraying the republic. Perhaps even the prince of Orange was the dupe of this refinement, but he was likewise an enemy to the neutral league, from much wiser motives. He knew that whatever unanimity might prevail in the opinions of the Dutch as to the expediency of the measure, its adoption must necessarily be attended with considerable delay, on account of the dilatory forms prescribed by the constitution ; and he was well assured that Great Britain would in the mean time seize some pretext for beginning a war, which in the then helpless state of the republic

public seemed the greatest of all possible evils. On the other hand, the court of Versailles were sensible that the Dutch, who now relied solely on them for support, would, by subscribing to the league, become in a great measure dependent on the empress; and it was by no means their interest to renew at St. Petersburg a contest for influence, which had already been decided in their favour at the Hague. From these concurrent causes, notwithstanding the clamours of the Amsterdam merchants, the accession of the republic to the neutral league was delayed till after the commencement of hostilities: it then acceded as a belligerent power; and was consequently precluded from those advantages which were enjoyed by the neutrals.

The prince of Orange was now entrusted with the conduct of a war which he had long foreseen and deprecated, but to which, from a perverse and untoward coincidence of events, he was by many considered as accessory. Convinced that the system pursued and recommended by William the Third was founded in the truest political wisdom, that a union of the maritime powers was essential to the general balance of Europe, and that an intimate alliance with Great Britain was necessary to the welfare of the republic, he had openly expressed his predilection for the English at the beginning of the American quarrel. To this conduct the patriots now very artfully reverted. They accused him of having advised the aggression of the English, and of contributing to their success by treachery. The evident inequality of the struggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards and arsenals of the republic, the frequent and public reclamations made by the prince and by the council of state on the subject of that deficiency were forgotten; and the wilful misconduct of the stadtholder was boldly alledged by the patriots, as the sole cause of that miserable series of defeat and disgrace which immediately followed the commencement of hostilities. These allegations were not only published by patriots, and by the wretched libellists in their pay, but were solemnly issued from the pulpit. The priests indeed were, in every part of the republic, the most formidable of the stadtholder's opponents: from their mouths no falsehoods were found too gross for belief; and they thought none too absurd for assertion.

It is the opinion of this author, that, whatever predilection the stadtholder had for Great Britain, the charges brought against his general conduct, during the war, appear to have been not well founded.—We cannot dismiss this work without observing; that it is written with a propriety, a chasteness, and energy of style, which merits our commendation.

Memoirs relative to the Campaign of 1788, in Sweden. By his Serene Highness Prince Charles of Hesse, Commander in Chief of the Danish Auxiliary Army. Translated from the French, with thirty-three Vouchers. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Baldwin.

THIS production may be considered partly as a manifesto of the court of Denmark, with respect to its conduct in the late hostilities against Sweden, and partly as a defence of prince Charles of Hesse, from the imputation of being a spy, in his passage through the latter of these kingdoms to Norway, a short time previous to the rupture between the two crowns. The following extract, however, contains the ostensible motive, assigned for the publication by his serene highness :

‘ The different opinions of the public, says he, concerning the entry into Sweden of a corps of Danish or Norwegian auxiliaries, ceded by the king to her imperial majesty of Russia, are an evident proof, that people even in other respects well informed, have not been thoroughly so of the affair in question, nor its consequences. The reports and insinuations of the opposite party, and the erroneous articles which swarm in the newspapers, have occasioned false interpretations of the most natural things ; and made the conduct of the court of Denmark, its alliance with Russia, and the movements and behaviour of its troops in Sweden, to be considered in a wrong point of view. I think it incumbent, therefore, on me to give the public, Denmark, and myself, a succinct account of this event, and its causes.’

We must acknowledge we are not perfectly satisfied as to the propriety of a person’s giving an account of any transaction to *himself*. But waving this objection, since it is the fortune of few characters to be ‘ crowned with both Minervas,’ we readily give the prince credit, for what he subjoins respecting his veracity.

‘ An ingenious freedom, continues he, which forms the basis of my character, shall guide my pen ; and I will conceal from the public only such facts as might injure, or bring shame on, some persons, without leading to the end I propose.’

As the subject of these Memoirs can afford but little gratification to our readers, it is sufficient for us to observe, that the account given by prince Charles is favourable to the honour of the court of Denmark ; and that the truth of the narrative is supported by a number of written documents, of various kinds.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

WHILE the journals of the continent convey immediate intelligence of the various additions made to the stock of scientific knowledge, we are obliged to trust for the labours of English philosophers to the delay of a separate publication, or to the appearance of each number of the Philosophical Transactions, where, from various causes, many discoveries cannot appear. We have, on this account, been compelled, at different times, to add the attempts of our countrymen to those of foreigners, because we have first collected them from the foreign journals, a method disgraceful to a scientific nation, who ought to have some periodical work to record their various labours in the literary department. We purpose, as far as we are able, to remedy this inconvenience; and will give an early account of any scientific communications which we may receive immediately from the author, or from any person commissioned by him. We shall occasionally interweave them with the subjects of this sketch, or, if we are employed on a different one, shall add it to our Number, under the title of Domestic Intelligence. It will depend on the communications we may receive, whether we can regularly add a few pages in each Review, under the latter title. This proposal, suggested by the appearance of Mr. Willis' and Dr. Blagden's discoveries in a foreign journal, will, we hope, be examined with candour; and not rejected by philosophers, who will derive the chief benefit from the communication: our readers also will undoubtedly be gratified by such early information. But we shall soon take another opportunity to explain this plan.

Dr. Blagden's observation is a singular one. Alkaline and pure air, after passing through a red-hot tube, produced nitrous air. The phlogificated part of the alkaline air joined with the oxygen to make nitrous air, while the inflammable air, with the rest of the oxygen, formed, according to M. Sennebier's observation, water. But we see no necessity for this new combination. The inflammable air was in part dissipated in light and heat, and the new body required the other ingredients: the pure air must be in excess.

Mr. Willis has been employed in fusing platina with success; but there are some peculiarities still in this metal which we cannot explain. He fused it by wrapping it in paper, and placing it on a bed of charcoal finely powdered: the quantity of charcoal must not, he thinks, be very great: to an ounce of the metal he adds a drachm of alkali of tartar, two drachms of borax, and a drachm of powdered charcoal. The fusion was complete, but he was not always equally successful: and, when the metal was fused, it was found not to be malleable. The French translator thinks, that it was fused in consequence of the remaining iron: if entirely free from iron,

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it would, he observes, agglutinate and become malleable; but this opinion seems to be contradicted by Mr. Willis's 13th experiment. Our author also could not procure malleable platina by Mr. Pelletier's method, viz. by first fusing it with the phosphoric acid, and next with charcoal: he fused the metal, but it was too harsh and brittle. The specific gravity of the platina was from 15.353 to 16.8; and the heat required to fuse it was, at least, 150° of Wedgwood's thermometer, about 20377° of Fahrenheit's, according to Mr. Wedgwood's own comparison.

We may now follow the same subject from authors really foreign. Gold we know to be nearly connected with platina, and we find gold has been discovered in some of the galenz of France. Galena generally contains about 67 parts of lead, 24 of calcareous earth, and about 9 or 10 of sulphur. That which rises near Aulas in the Pyrenees produces 60 pounds of lead from a quintal of the ore, and 3 ounces of silver in a quintal of the metal. In the silver, a sufficient quantity of gold was discovered to deserve separation on a large scale. Native gold and silver often occur in a matrix of calcareous spar and galena, particularly in some rich mines of Siberia, where above a third of gold has been found in native silver. M. Sage has compared the red mineral silver from Peru with that of the mine of St. Mary: each are in colour the same; but that of Peru is ten times richer in silver than the other: the latter contains 78 parts in 100 of arsenic. The water and mephitic acid are in small quantity, and nearly in the same proportion, in each. Mercury, we are told by M. de la Roupe, may be recovered by pouring æther upon it. The calx changes into a greyish powder, but it assumed its metallic form only when dried by heat, and stirred with a knife. The æther undoubtedly furnished much of the phlogiston.

The art of whitening copper or brass by means of tin has been hitherto little understood, either in the practice or its theory: the latter we cannot clearly perceive: but the former we shall shortly explain from the memoir of M. Gadolin, read to the academy at Stockholm; the remarks on it by the baron Gedda; and the answer of professor Gadolin, which lie before us. But it is necessary to premise, that, in England, tinning has two different meanings. Our copper kitchen utensils are covered with laminæ of tin melted in the vessel previously heated, and prepared by mixtures which are supposed to open the pores of the copper, and facilitate the union of the metals. The union, however, chiefly depends on these metals being fitted to each other in a heated state, and contracting on each other when cold. The preparation chiefly of crude sal ammoniac, and some other ingredients, seems useful only in preventing the calcination, or dissolving the calx. Another method of tinning or whitening brass is that employed in the pin manufactory, which is, at least was, kept as the profoundest secret; and a third:

a third the tinning of iron plates, to form what was formerly called latten, has been known, we believe, ever since the days of Reaumur. The English improvement consists, we apprehend, in passing them through a rolling mill: but the thin coat of tin, deposited from a menstruum on the polished brass chiefly employed in making pins, blanching nails, tenter-hooks, the bits of horses, &c. is our object of enquiry at present. In this process, the calx of tin is dissolved in the acid of tartar; but the mode of effecting the precipitation which apparently takes place, without a previous dissolution of the metallic tin, is the great difficulty. Our author found, that the copper could not separate tin in a metallic form unless some other tin, in the metallic form, was in the solution. The blanching (we must beg leave to use a term already naturalized in the practice of the art) he observes, succeeds best, if the copper is boiled with the metallic tin in a solution where the acid is a little in excess, and with this precaution only, a small proportion of the tin is precipitated; but if the acid is greatly in excess, or is entirely saturated by the tin, the experiment fails. A little iron, recently dissolved in the acid, does no injury to the colour. The tin seems to be dissolved more copiously in tartar or its acid, if a calcined calx of tin is previously combined with the solution: if the calx of copper is first dissolved in the acid, the pellicle of tin is of a dirty colour.

The baron de Gedda, in his remarks on this paper, observes, that alum and common salt, or either alone may be employed, instead of tartar, in the process of blanching; but common salt also dissolves a little of the copper, and injures the white colour. If the copper and tin are put in together, a little of the copper seems to be dissolved, and the colour to be injured; but if alum is employed, they may be added at once without danger. The necessity of the presence of tin, in a metallic state, are fully evinced by the baron; but he doubts whether the experiment will not succeed as well, when the acid is saturated: he doubts too, whether, when the tin is wholly dissolved, and the colour deposited is blackish, on account of the solution of copper, fresh tin will not render the same solution fit for blanching.

M. Gadolin, in his answer to the baron, shews, that gold may be blanched in this way, though it is not soluble in the menstruum; and concludes, that the blanching wholly depends on the attraction of the copper for tin in its state of a metal, which the baron had doubted. Iron, in a similar process, was covered with tin, though not of a bright colour; but a little iron seemed to favour the precipitation on the copper, particularly when a solution of alum was employed as the menstruum. When the blanching power of the menstruum is lost by a solution of copper, it may be recovered by precipitating the copper. If a polish is wanted rather than a more perfect blanching, tartar is the best menstruum. Alum gives a very perfect

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whiteness

whiteness. Tartar and common salt may be added, if a little more polish is required. This is nearly the substance of these memoirs, which we have filtered into chemical questions, lest we might injure ingenious artists who now live by their processes. We have given nothing which can, we think, materially hurt them, though to the chemists we have said enough.

What was formerly called the Siberian spar was some time since found to be a mineral of lead. It rises near Catherineburg, at Beresof, where there are also mines of iron containing gold, which is separated from the cubical pyrites, by reducing the iron to a hepatized state. The crystals of the red lead are rhomboidal tetraedra, like the white and green ores, but lighter, and losing about a quarter part of their weight when weighed in water. M. M. Marquart and Lehman have examined it in the moist way, and by means of the blow-pipe, as well as in the open air. The result of M. Marquart's examination is, that it contains $36\frac{1}{2}$ parts of lead, $37\frac{3}{4}$ of vital air, $24\frac{1}{2}$ of iron, and 2 of alum. The little additional weight seems to have arisen from the product having acquired some moisture. The alum M. Lehman calls selenite.

M. Sage has also described an earthy ore of lead combined with arsenic and phosphoric acid: its crystals are prismatic hexaedra; the colour of a yellow green; but this is not owing to any other metal different from the lead. The arsenic is in the proportion of about half, and the lead in about one tenth.

M. Hyelm has given a very scientific description of his method of reducing molybdena. It has been doubted in France, whether this was really a metal, or an earth distinguished by peculiar appearances; in consequence of its union with the vitriolic acid. Our author has shown how to separate the acid, by repeatedly pouring olive oil over it, and burning them together, which changes the acid into a sulphur, and dissipates it in vapour. He shows also how to reduce the molybdena, by uniting it with other metals, whose volatility and inflammability are in this way increased, and by different fluxes, which produced the regulus described by Scheele and Bergman. These details we cannot easily abridge: when melted alone or with powdered charcoal, and the mass is afterwards triturated, the small particles seemed to show some brilliancy, but did not appear to be decidedly metallic.

As we proceed in a retrograde course, we shall next mention the earths so far as relates to their chemical history, or their artificial decomposition by heat and moisture. M. Sage has added some farther observations on the sappare, a stone whose composition we described from M. Saussure's analysis, in our last volume, p. 383. M. Sage has described it in the second volume of his *Analyse Chymique*, p. 71. in the following terms. In the granites of Spain, and in those of St Symphonien, near Lyons, we meet with a kind of *an siges marine*, of a blue

Blue colour, in long flattened tetraedral prisms, foliated in a longitudinal direction, and sometimes united in bundles. He afterwards received, he tells us, some of these foliated berils from mount St. Gothard. They are found in a white transparent quartz moulded on the crystals. They are also met with on white opaque felt spar, mixed with steatite: sometimes the quartz, and felt spar are coloured by ocre. The berils, from different countries, nearly resemble each other: in a group of crystals from Germany, a rhomboid was very distinguishable. The softness, described by M. Saussure, is only in the direction of the lamellæ; in a contrary one it strikes fire with steel, when the crystals are not exfoliated, or the laminæ divided by steatite. It does not lose this property by calcination; and the surface, in consequence of the heat only, becomes of a pearly whiteness. The colouring iron may be extracted, we find, by powdering the stone and distilling it with eight parts of sal ammoniac, which sublimes without decomposing, and the lixivium of this salt-work, with the phlogisticated alkali, deposits Prussian blue. M. Sage, we perceive, continues to think the tinging principle of Prussian blue an acid, and the neutrals formed by it, kept in his possession some years, are not, he observes in another memoir, deliquescent. Our author suspects that the magnesia which M. de Saussure found, came from the steatite.

A new felt spar, styled the adularia, has been discovered on the Stella, near St. Gothard, by M. Spini. Of this family we were only acquainted with the common felt spar, the Labrador stone, and the pierre de lune. The adularia is, like the other species, foliated; its fracture rhomboidal; its fragments rhomboids, four surfaces of which reflect the light, though the four other surfaces have not this property. Its colour (that of mother of pearl) distinguishes it from the common felt spar. It is cat's-eyed sometimes, like the Labrador stone, but the colours have not the same brilliancy or intensity, and seem owing to some oblique imperceptible fissures, such as occur in glass alternately exposed to the rain and to the sun, when it is beginning to exfoliate. Besides, the Labrador stone is always of a greyish cast. It is more difficult to distinguish it from the moon-stone, which appears of a clear flesh colour, when the light is viewed through its thin laminæ, and is somewhat transparent; circumstances not observed in the adularia. It is harder than common felt spar, and less hard than quartz: it is cold to the touch, with difficulty scraped with the knife, and generally strikes fire with steel. Its weight varies, as it is more or less transparent and friable; generally between 2,550, and 2,600. It is not attacked by acids; it neither decrepitates or becomes phosphoric in the fire; it runs to a white glass filled with little microscopic globules; in the dry way it is dissolved with effervescence by means of borax, and imperfectly, without effervescence, by mineral alkali. In mountains, it forms strata between those of the saxum fornacum and

veined granite: it may, like other felt spars, occur in threads or be a component part of other stones. Our author, M. Struve, thinks it only a variety of common felt spar and related to it, as the Iceland spar is to the common calcareous spar. Its analysis has been given differently. M. Morell found in 100 grains, $1\frac{3}{4}$ grain of water; of flint $62\frac{7}{8}$; of clay $19\frac{5}{8}$; magnesia $5\frac{1}{2}$; of selenite $10\frac{1}{2}$; but he speaks, with diffidence, of his real success. The white felt spar contains more flint, less clay, and terra ponderosa, instead of lime.

M. Dodun has added to our knowledge of this substance, by describing the species found in the black mountain in Languedoc. He thinks M. Struve too rash in calling it a felt spar, because to the form of crystallization the same integrant parts should be added. The adularia of Languedoc is found in the fissures of the black micaceous granatoid rock, following its calcareous bands, which alternate with the granatoid. It is in these fissures, which contain the elements of the matrix, and in which the adularia seems a secondary formation, that it must be chiefly sought; but it is by no means so transparent as that described by M. Struve. This species is harder than felt spar and less hard than quartz: it with difficulty strikes fire with steel, though steel does not injure its solid angles. Its faces are veined with a dirty white, and with green, more or less deep; in some places cats-eyed. The fracture is like that of quartz, but not very brilliant: its laminated structure is only ascertained by the help of the microscope. Borax does not dissolve it with effervescence, on a support of charcoal. A fire of half a hour's continuance is necessary to fuse a piece not larger than the head of a pin; and it appears in borax as a white spot, not unlike opaque quartz. The glass is of a greyish white, with many fine microscopic cellules. M. Dodun has not yet analyzed it in the moist way.

Another mineral, whose nature we have lately understood more accurately, is the Prehnite of Werner, so called, because it was given him at the Cape of Good Hope, where it occurs, by colonel Prehn. This mode of denominating crystals is justly reprehended by M. Sage, to whom we are indebted for our information respecting its analysis. The latter formerly called it the chrysolite of the Cape; but, on more accurate enquiry, found it to be a schorl. It is the No. 81 of the cabinet of the royal school of minerals, thus defined: 'a green clear transparent schorl, lamellated, striking fire with steel.' In the fire, it soon loses its transparency; when the heat is increased, it swells, and produces a greenish brown cellular enamel, which does not concrete in masses. The colouring matter is iron, and it is discovered by the same process as in the sap-pare. Werner would class this green stone of the Cape between the zeolite and the schorls; M. Jacquet calls it a crystallized prasos; M. Bruckman thinks it a felt spar; M. Hasenfratz has defined it in the following manner; 'a flinty, calcareous,

careous, aluminous, magnesian, iron-stone, of a green colour in laminated masses, semitransparent and crystallized in bundles on the surface.' On analyzing, he found it to contain of flint 50; lime 23.4; alum 20.4; calx of iron 4.9; water 9; magnesia 5. M. Klaproth's analysis differs only in the proportions, and his not discovering magnesia. It contains, according to this author, of flint $43\frac{1}{2}$; alum $30\frac{1}{2}$; lime $18\frac{1}{2}$; iron $5\frac{1}{2}$; water and air $1\frac{1}{6}$.

M. Bournon formerly described the pechtein of Menil montant, which has been found to contain magnesia; but, as other stones, apparently of the same kind, produced no bitter salt, when treated with vitriolic acid, philosophers were inclined to exclude this species from the class. Mr. Bournon, though he allows it to differ in this respect, yet thinks it agrees in so many others, as to deserve the denomination. He rests, however, on its containing only a bituminous matter, which he connects with his own system of lithology; but, in this part of his memoir, the proofs seem to be defective. He calls that oily substance which in the mother water prevents crystallization, the mineral fat. On similar grounds, he connects the hydrophalous stone with the pechstein, calcedony, sardonix, opal, agate, jasper, flint, and petro flint.

M. Afzelius Arvidson has described the different kinds of heavy spar found in Sweden, and added an analysis of each. The specific gravity varies from 4.583 to 3.892. They contain a pretty large proportion of pure heavy spar, from 93 to 55 parts in 100; but the average proportion is about 65, some pure selenite, a little pure vitrifiable earth, some ocreous clay, a very little water, and occasionally some aerial substance of an uncertain nature. One kind does not contain the selenite, and another, with the selenite, has about .08 of aerated calcareous earth.

We shall conclude our sketch, since an account of the other objects of chemistry would at present lead us too far, with a translation of one or two of M. Crell's letters to M. D'Arcet and M. de la Matherie: they are usual, interesting and instructive, though concise and abrupt. The first is to M. D'Arcet.

Sir, M. Schiller wrote me, some days since, that, by mixing one part of sal ammoniac, three parts of potash, with one part and a half of water, distilling these ingredients, till all the crystallizable salt had passed over, and then changing the receiver, he obtained a liquid, which appeared, in every respect, like the best phlogisticated alkali. I have a curiosity to examine, if this happens with every kind of sal ammoniac, or is peculiar to that of Egypt, which still contains some particles of the foot unmixed. M. Westrumb has analyzed the calculus from the bladder of a horse, and the incrustations of chamber pots, without finding the acid discovered by Scheele, Bergman, and Brugnatelli. But, besides a considerable quantity of oily

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phlogiston, he found some volatile alkali, calcareous earth, and phosphoric acid. This chemist has also analyzed different specimens of sulphur from the shops, and has discovered in it some arsenic and a little calcareous earth. The presence of arsenic is easily explained; but the calcareous earth, which is found even in the flowers of sulphur, is it a constituent part, or even the base of phlogiston? the question is yet undecided.

The next is to M. de la Metherie.

M. Westrumb has proved by new experiments that all the vegetable acids, when the analysis is carried to the utmost point, yield phosphoric and aerial acids. These are obtained by employing nitrous and dephlogisticated muriatic acids. If the vegetable acids are treated with pure nitre, he finds the phosphoric acid alone: he will soon publish the proofs of this very new discovery. I have seen with pleasure, from your letter, that the antiphlogistic theory makes no progress in foreign countries; that, on the contrary, it seems to lose ground. If Dr. Priestley's new experiments be farther confirmed, of which I entertain no doubt, this theory will lose its support; and we shall only find the numerous difficulties which have been already objected to it.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

FRENCH AFFAIRS.

The Speech of Mr. Necker, Director General of the Finances, at the Meeting of the Assembly of Notables, held at Versailles, November 6, 1788. To which is added, the King's and the Keeper's Speeches. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

THE Speech contains in embryo the future organization of the assembly of the states-general. It rather proposes subjects of deliberation, than offers any decided opinion. It is slight, pompous, and unimportant.

Mr. Necker's Report to his most Christian Majesty in Council, announcing important Changes in the French Government. Translated from the French. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

In the Report before us, the comptroller of the finances speaks more openly; but his advice of increasing the number of commons, and of admitting at least of a thousand deputies, has laid the foundation of the liberties, perhaps of the continued anarchy of France. Each proposal was equally injudicious.

Extrait de la Requête Adressée au Roi par M. de Calonne, Ministre d'Etat. 8vo. 2s. Robson.

In the struggle with clamorous authors, and numerous important *English* publications, M. Calonne's *Requête au Roi* escaped us; and, when we turned to it, we had little temptation to enlarge on a political debate, which, at that time, appeared

peared not likely to produce any great change. We were pleased therefore at seeing this Extract, and of being able to give, though in the decisive language of a catalogue-article, our opinion on the work. In the original Request, M. Calonne appears in a very advantageous light. His style is forcible, his arguments manly, and his language clear. We can see in every part of it, the best traits of that character which we drew from the foreign work, noticed at large in our Number for October. Yet, at times, we find a little embarrassment, where the minister could probably have spoken plainer, if he had dared to do it; and in those moments of difficulty, we can detect the greatest number of faults: in one or two instances we think also that we perceive a little contradiction. But, on the whole, it displays great acuteness, strong judgment, and accurate discrimination. This Extract is sometimes a summary; but in the most brilliant passages, the words of the author are exactly copied.

La Lettre Adressée au Roi, par M. de Calonne. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.
Reponse Critique a la Lettre Adressée au Roi, par M. de Calonne.
Le 9 Fevrier, 1789. Par M. de Soyres. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

The Letter, with the Answer, may truly be styled political pamphlets. M. Calonne seems to have been actuated by a little disappointment, and his language is proportionally animated. M. de Soyres is more calm and more argumentative; but not more convincing.

Lettre aux Etats Généraux de France. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway.

The author has escaped from his keeper, and raves at large: in more sober truth, however, liberty never more certainly degenerates into licentiousness than when enjoyed as a novelty, and endeared as being unexpected. Our author may therefore be allowed to be unusually animated, and even zealously enthusiastic.

Du Coüedic à sa Patrie, Expatrié en Angleterre, demandant la Liberté de la Presse par la Nécessité des Loix pour la Liberté du Peuple François. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

M. du Coüedic was the victim of despotism, while despotism reigned in France. During his residence in England, the flame of liberty has burnt with enthusiastic ardour. Yet his zeal is tempered with knowledge and good sense; and we would recommend his Observations on the Liberty of the Press, and on Lettres de Cachet, to Englishmen, if it were possible that Englishmen should ever be in a condition to profit by them. To his own countrymen, they may still be useful. The reflections on the necessity of a particular constitution for France are admirable: we have read nothing more animated, or, in general, more just.

Discours

Discours d'un Membre de l'Assemblée Nationale à ses Co-députés.
8vo. 1783.

This speech was not delivered; and indeed its extent, though the author promises to be short, rendered it improper, as the reasoning pursued made the delivery impolitic. The author thinks that the national assembly have carried the reforms too far: they have disgraced the king, loosened the bands of society and the restraints of law, seduced the army, impoverished the clergy, and destroyed the national spirit. This speech has been attributed, we think, however, without reason, to M. Lally de Tollendal.

Memoire des Ministre du Roi, adressé à l'Assemblée Nationale le
24 Octobre, 1783. 4to.

This Memoir relates chiefly to the importation of corn; but the ministers, with great force and propriety, expostulate with the assembly on the want of subordination which now prevails, while they expect that regular supply which is consistent only with an established government.

A Letter from Pope Pius VI. to the French Nation, translated from the Original, by Fr. Goynard du Bourney. 4to. 1s. Bell.

‘*Ridendo rerum* (altered with a pen to *verum*) *dicere, quid vetat?*’ If the author from this motto meant to ask, why we should not speak the truth *while* we are laughing, we can answer, that we have no objection to it. To speak truth, in a vein of ridicule, (*ridendi dicere verum*) *quid vetat?* as Horace really wrote, is a very different question. Our author composed his letter, we suspect, during a fit of laughter; and, as he laughed himself, supposed that his readers would be affected in the same way. On this account, he altered the satyr’s words with great propriety, for we believe the merriest of his readers can peruse the little pamphlet, with the unmoved gravity of a cynic.

P O E T R Y.

Redemption, a Poem, in Five Books. By Joseph Swain. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Mathews.

Some small pieces of Joseph Swain’s have appeared in the Theological Miscellany. His ‘present humble attempt, as he modestly styles it, was suggested by the rev. Mr. De Coetlogon;’ who has furnished it with a preface, in which we are told, that,

‘What he (that is the author) means is to throw the infallible dictates of the spirit of inspiration into humble metre, and in the modest strain of scriptural simplicity and godly sincerity. He writes not for the regions of polite literature; having never derived any advantages of that sort from a liberal, or even classical, education. He hopes, therefore, not to be judged by the
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severe rules of Criticism—perfectly satisfied if what he has advanced in these pages will stand the test, and promote the cause, of *piety and truth*.’

We, accordingly, fully satisfied with the author’s good intentions, will waive all juridical authority in this case, and refer the poem to the inferior class of readers, whose taste it will probably suit, and whose religious sentiments it may tend to strengthen or improve. We wish not to be understood as approving every doctrine or position contained in this work, but must declare that we found a simplicity and energy in some passages that both surprised and pleased us. The author says that ‘he means at some future period (*if the Lord will*) to add five books more to the present work, on the same subject.’

Kerfes to John Howard, F. R. S. on his State of Prisons and Lazarettos. By W. L. Bowles. 4to. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

Mr. Howard’s highly laudable and peculiar species of benevolence has inspired many an epcomiastic strain; among which this is not the least commendable. The short poem, however, on the death of Mr. Headly, though not noticed in the title-page, strikes us as a superior performance. Mr. Headly published the ‘*Beauties of ancient Poetry*,’ which we noticed in Vol. LXV.

P. 49.

It is alluded to in the following picturesque passage. The concluding lines are not so correctly expressed as we could wish, but the image is beautiful:

‘Nor ceas’d he yet to stray, where, winding wild,
The Muse’s path his drooping steps beguil’d,
Intent to rescue some neglected rhyme,
Lone-blooming, from the mournful waste of Time;
Or mark each scatter’d sweet, that seem’d to smile
Like flowers upon the long-forfaken pile.
Far from the murmuring crowd, unseen, he sought
Each charm congenial to his sadden’d thought.
When the grey morn illum’d the mountain’s side,
To hear the sweet bird’s earliest song he hied:
When meekest Eve to the fold’s distant bell
Listen’d, and bade the woods and vales farewell,
Musing in tearful mood, he oft was seen,
The last that linger’d o’er the fading green.
The waving wood, high o’er the cliff reclin’d,
The murmuring water-fall, the winter’s wind,
His heart’s mild miseries oft seem’d to suit,
Like mourning gales on the responsive lute.’

Sonnets. The two last in Commemoration of the late W. Jackson, Esq. By William Groombridge. 1s. Printed for the Author.

These Sonnets afford but little materials for criticism: they are neither good enough for praise, nor bad enough to be treated with severity. If Mr. Groombridge has received the advantage

vantage of a liberal education, they will not add much to his literary credit; but if that has been contracted, they afford no unfavourable specimen of his genius and abilities.

The Jilt: a Poem 4to. 1s. Printed for the Author.

The Jilt is a fair object for the shafts of satire, and affords a copious subject for an author's humour to display itself to advantage. Both are attempted in the present poem, but with little success: for the humour is commonly feeble, and the satire pointless.

DRAMATIC.

The Sword of Peace; or, a Voyage of Love; a Comedy, in Five Acts. First performed at the Theatre Royal in the Hay-market. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

When a lady wields the 'Sword of Peace,' surly must be the critic's soul, if he breathe hostile defiance. We accept the olive branch, and neither 'hint a fault, or hesitate dislike.' Yet, if in a future attempt, she would court the comic Muse, perhaps a little more variety of character, a more intricate plot, which shall 'hold expectation tiptoe,' and more interesting situations, might lead the audience to applaud with warmth what they may now more coolly approve. Sentiment too has sunk, as 'the School for Scandal' rose; but we learn, with pleasure, that such a character as David Northcote exists, who can feel and act suitably to sentiments, which, we fear, have sometimes disguised the villain, and rendered even virtue suspected.

The Benevolent Planters, a Dramatic Piece, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Hay-market. Written by Thomas Bellamy. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

This little piece was produced, as a temporary popular publication, to add to the emoluments of Mrs. Kemble's benefit. In this view, it is not a subject of criticism. If there are many 'Benevolent Planters' the labour is already effected, since many slaves are supposed to be liberated each returning anniversary of the games. Mrs. Kemble's part is simple, pleasing, and affecting; but if this dramatic trifle answered the end for which it was produced, we think the author not very judicious in challenging more cool and dispassionate criticism.

DIVINITY, RELIGIOUS, &c.

The Conduct to be observed by Dissenters, in order to procure the Repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts, recommended in a Sermon, preached before the Congregations of the Old and New Meetings of Birmingham, Nov. 5, 1789. By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F. R. S. 1s.

This is a very plain, candid, and dispassionate discourse, stating the subject in the clearest manner, and replying to different objections very satisfactorily. So far as it goes, we think it unanswerable; and we have not so great confidence in these arguments

arguments which Dr. Priestley has omitted, as to rest on them very securely. In this sermon he has properly compensated for his hasty letter to Mr. Pitt on the same subject. The 'more than we have yet solicited,' is the only exceptionable and suspicious passage in the whole sermon.

The Principles of the Revolution asserted and vindicated, and its Advantages stated, in a Sermon preached at Castle-Hedingham, Essex, Nov. 5, 1788. By R. Stevenson, 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

By a little effort the author reduces the defeat of the Spanish Armada, the Gun powder Plot, and the Revolution, to the same anniversary. His discourse, however, chiefly relates to the Revolution, and contains an historical account of that event, with the preceding circumstances and the consequences. He paints James and his odious instruments in the blackest colours; indeed we think in colours too black, for we have long since learnt 'to give the devil no more than his due.'

A Sermon, on the Progress of Divine Revelation, preached on Sunday, April 13, 1788. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

'I am not come to destroy but to fulfil.' This text suggests to the preacher the consideration of the progress of revelation, by the immediate and sensible communications of the power of God, and afterwards by the more remote influence of prophecy, inculcated on the Jews by a troublesome and ceremonious ritual, which was done away on the coming of our Saviour, as it was only calculated to keep awake a lively remembrance of the Redeemer; to be a type of his future coming to suffer for our sins. Our author conceals the reason of this publication, but we suspect it to be some misrepresentation of his doctrine, particularly of the latter part of it. In this, however, we may be mistaken; but we have little doubt in recommending this sermon as pious, judicious, and practical. The language is forcible and perspicuous.

On the Consideration due to the Clergy from their Importance in Society. A Sermon preached at the Anniversary Meeting of the Sons of the Clergy, of Pembrokeshire. By Charles Symmons, B. D. 4to. 1s. Williams.

Mr. Symons' text is from 1 Cor. xii. 26. 'And whether one member suffer, all the members suffer with it; or one member be honoured, all the members rejoice with it.' This elegant and judicious allusion leads the author to examine the connexion of the different parts of which the more modern complicated system of society consists. He then considers the priesthood particularly, gives a short history of the institution, compares the former lustre of this order with its present state, and adds a warm animated encomium on the virtues and abilities of many eminent divines of the eighteenth century. His next object is the society by which he was appointed: he explains the source

of the hardships of the clergy in Wales, and pleads their cause with energy; pathos, and ability.

A Sermon preached before the Governors of the Northampton Infirmary, at the Parish Church of All-Saints, Northampton, September 24, 1789. By J. J. Rye, A.B. 4to. 1s. Chalkley.

The language of this Sermon is florid and often elegant: the subject is the heathen doctrines and practices contrasted with the more purely benevolent spirit of the Christian dispensation. It has been often employed in similar compositions, and is well adapted to the circumstances in which the preacher was placed. We mean not this as a censure for want of novelty, since every topic has been already expatiated on; and novelty of language is almost as scarce as an uncommon subject.

Sermons, principally addressed to Youth. By J. Toulmin, A.M. Second Edition, to which are added, Two Sermons, never before printed, and some Forms of Prayer. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Johnson.

The first edition of these Sermons we noticed in our XXXIst volume, p. 79. Two sermons are added; the second on the happiness and improvement of a pious descent; the fifth, urging the former arguments designed to lead the young man to the profession of Christianity. Instead of Isocrates' Oration to Demonicus, some prayers are subjoined; but of these we can commend the piety rather than the orthodoxy.

We think our author's delicacy in his postscript is misplaced; and the doubts of the authenticity of the two first chapters of St. Luke's Gospel should have been suggested to the maturer critic, rather than to those for whom the sermons were written. In this conduct Mr. Toulmin will not recommend his work to the more judicious and discerning readers.

On the Principle of Vitality in Man, as described in the Holy Scriptures, and the Difference between true and apparent Death. A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of St. Andrew in Holborn, on Sunday, March 22, 1789, for the Benefit of the Humane Society. By Samuel, Lord Bishop of St. David's. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

The bishop, in this excellent discourse, discriminates, with great perspicuity, between the doctrines of inspiration on the subjects which the teachers were directed to inculcate, and their opinions on different points, particularly on the doctrines of philosophy, or other incidental topics. In this way he supposes philosophy and religion can never be at variance: they will always assist each other, and render their mutual impressions more forcible and more lasting. Yet, in this distinction, great allowance should, he thinks, be made for the separate explicit assertions of holy writ; for these must not be controverted; yet nothing should be inferred beyond what is asserted: in the regions of philosophy, on the other hand, we must discriminate between the experiment and the deduction. This distinction

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was necessary on both sides, to promote the wished-for reconciliation; and it was peculiarly so, to establish the great foundation of our author's doctrine.

The text is from Ecclesiastes xii. 7. 'Then shall the dust return to the earth, as it was; and the spirit shall return to God who gave it.' This passage amounts, he thinks, to an assertion that man consists of two principles; the earth; and the spirit, imparted to it by God. Moses' account of the creation of man is pointedly and explicitly in favour of the same doctrine. Yet it is not supposed by our author that the life of man is not mechanical; for these two principal component parts may be compounded, and each consist of its separate principles. The soul is, he supposes, intellect; and the animal life compounded of the vegetable life, combined with perception. So far then, as man consists of vegetable life, he may be a mechanical machine; and while any stop is put to that machine, without producing the separation between it and its vital spirit, or without affecting the organization, life may be restored. Until the dust return to the earth as it was, and the spirit unto God that gave it, the apparently dead may probably be recovered.

Such, on the whole, is our author's system; and though, in a philosophical view it may appear a little heretical, yet it is explained and supported with great clearness and judgment. The compliments to the directors, and the warm recommendations of the charity, are of a more animated cast; but as they are usual in similar discourses, we must look on them as the necessary and unavoidable appendages.

A Letter to the Right Rev. Samuel, Lord Bishop of St. David's; occasioned by his Sermon on the Principle of Vitality in Man, &c. Preached on Sunday, March 22, 1789, for the Benefit of the Humane Society. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

Our author attacks the bishop on his opinions respecting inspiration, and the connection of the soul with the body. In this contest he displays much ability and acuteness: we were not fully satisfied with the bishop's system; and, on the other hand, we think our author has pushed many disputable opinions too far.

A Letter to the Right Reverend Father in God, Lewis, Lord Bishop of Norwich: occasioned by his late Visitation-Tour through the Counties of Norfolk and Suffolk. With some Remarks on a Preparatory Discourse on Confirmation, by Thomas Knowles, D. D. 8vo. 6d. Buckland.

A Letter to the Right Rev. Lewis, by divine Permission, Lord Bishop of Norwich, requesting his Lordship to name the Prelate, to whom he referred, as "contending strenuously for the general Excellence of our present authorized Translation of the Bible." 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

Dr. Bagot has offended the first of these correspondents, by
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his too solemn administration of confirmation; and the clergy of his diocese are introduced as aiding and abetting his supposed object, by their representations in the pulpit. The bishop is compared, if not to the great beast, to the something distinct from the beast, perhaps 'another and the same.' But we see nothing very reprehensible in this conduct: the solemn admittance within the pale of the Christian church, when a person takes on himself the promises made for him in his baptism, should undoubtedly be conducted with proper decorum; and the plus or minus will appear different to minds differently tinctured. Our author peeps through the cloak of Calvin, and is terrified.

We may perhaps allow that the bishop employed expressions too strong, when he spoke of the general excellence of our translation of the Bible. If by 'the venerable prelate' quoted, he meant Dr. Lowth, his correspondent has shown that his lordship is mistaken; various authorities are introduced in opposition to Dr. Bagot; and they are of great importance. We have so lately given our opinion on the subject that we need not repeat it.

A Letter to Dr. Priestley: or, a Volley of Random-Shot, discharged at him, from the old Fortress, called the Church of England. By a Volunteer. 1s. 6d. Parsons.

This writer scatters his random-shot at Dr. Priestley with some spirit. He fights with the Bible, a weapon with which a zealous Calvinist in the North once attempted to kill the devil; but we suppose the one will fire as the other fought, with no great success. Our author skirmishes a little irregularly; and though he may be a spirited partizan, will never acquire the character of an able general.

A Brief Exposition of the Doctrine of the New Church, which is meant by the New Jerusalem in the Apocalypse. Translated from the Latin of the hon. Eman. Swedenbourg. 8vo. 3s. Hindmarsh.

This exposition is designed as a contrast to the doctrines of the old church, and to show the great superiority of the former. We have usually found Emanuel too deep or too high for our comprehension; and we find it beyond our powers to give a distinct view of his new doctrines, since we do not, we fear, accurately understand them. Those who are furnished with the true mystical spectacles, to be procured, we apprehend, in the neighbourhood of Clerkenwell, may derive, probably, much instruction from this work.

A Letter to the rev. Mr. Elhanan Winchester: in which his Theological Tenets and Opinions are fairly and candidly Examined, and Confuted, as Inconclusive and Sophistical. By Dr. Sinclair. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Walker.

Mr. Winchester, in his lectures, considers the scriptures in a literal sense. Dr. Sinclair differs from him, and contends occasionally

asionally for an allusive and an allegorical interpretation. But this pamphlet is written in an humorous style; and the humour sometimes borders on profaneness. When Dr. Sinclair aims at wit, he frequently fails, or it, at least, evaporates in a pun.

Applications of an Ancient Parent, who found great Benefit from the Use of the Same. 8vo. 9d. Rivingtons.

These prayers are pious and orthodox: they display a truly religious spirit; but we cannot recommend them as models of devotional excellence.

The Eternity of the Universe. By G. Hoggart Foxlin, M. D. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Johnson.

We reviewed this work in our Lth vol. p. 34, and again with a new title in our LXIIId vol. p. 237. This seems really a new edition, and lest the fun and the stars should feel themselves neglected, our author endeavours to show that they are also eternal. We have seen nothing, so far as argument is concerned, more truly contemptible; and we pity the young man as much as he seems to pity the superstition (in his language the religion) of the age.

The Unitarian, Arian, and Trinitarian Opinion respecting Christ, examined and tried by Scripture Evidence alone, in a Method hitherto unattempted. By William Abdozne. 8vo. 1s. Printed for the Author.

Our author thinks the genuine interpretation of the language of Scripture, respecting Christ, is that he did not partake of the divine nature. But a prejudice only in favour of the unitarian system could occasion this error. 'The Holy Ghost shall come upon thee, and the power of the highest overshadow thee,' says the angel; and yet our author supposes that no unprejudiced person could from this account believe that the offspring was any thing more than human. The prejudice must certainly be on his side or on ours, for from the same premises we draw an opposite conclusion.

The Origin and Importance of Life considered, in a Sermon preached at the Parish Church of St. Giles's, Northampton, Sept. 13, 1789, introductory to the Institution of the Preservative Society in that County; and at the Parish Church of Carshalton in Surry, for the Benefit of the Royal Humane Society, Oct. 25, 1789. By William Agutter, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Chalklen.

We cannot highly commend this sermon for the force of its reasoning, or the general judgment displayed in the conduct of it. The author recommends the institution with zeal, and we hope that his eloquence was effectual. We shall extract only a short note:

* The true and philosophical idea of death appears to be this, not that the soul leaves the body at first, and therefore the material frame must perish; but that the body is no longer a fit

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habitation for the soul to continue in it. As the brain and heart are the grand sources of sensation, the *primum vivens et ultimum moriens* in the animal machine, therefore death is generally *apparent* before it is *real*?

We think the *fair* conclusion from these premises should have been, that death is real, as soon as it is apparent.

N O V E L S.

Tyranny of Love; or, Memoirs of the Marchioness D'Artemberg.
2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Elliot and Kay.

We think these volumes may be very useful, though in a way which the author probably did not intend. The stories are so closely and confusedly intermixed, that the work will exercise the powers of reflection, discrimination, and memory. We therefore recommend it for this purpose, since the mind cannot easily be gratified while it labours; nor will those who come for entertainment, remain to labour. In other respects, the novel is very trifling: if these be the *Tyrannies of Love*, the despot must be desposed, and his adherents brought to the lamp-iron.

Heerfort and Clara, from the German. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Robinsons.

We found this novel very interesting and entertaining: the characters are uncommon, and the situations frequently affecting; but, in the conduct of the plot, we do not think the author skilful. The narrative is too frequently broken, and he returns to relate adventures, which a novelist of more address would have brought some of the other characters to explain. The moral is exemplary; but perhaps it might have been strengthened, if some of the various objects of Heerfort's bounty and benevolence had contributed to the catastrophe.

William and Charles; or, the Bold Adventurers. A Novel. In two Volumes. Written in Letters and Narrative, by the Author of Lord Winworth, &c. 12mo. 5s. Stalker.

We know not whether the design, the conduct, or the language of this work be most contemptible. The whole is in a high degree absurd and improbable, deformed by inelegant provincialisms. If any part be rescued from the severity of this general censure, it is the concealment of Mrs. Emmet, and the manner in which she is gradually brought forward to elucidate the plot. In this part some skill appears to be displayed.

Albertina. A Novel. In Two Volumes. 12mo. 5s. Crowder.

This novel is a little too full of 'hair-breadth 'scapes,' and somewhat deficient in probability; but to a reader, not very nice and attentive, will appear interesting and entertaining.

The 'change of fortune,' (peripetia) is very great, and the concluding revolution equally so—all ends happily: the heroine is married; and her former unsuccessful lover consoles himself with another spouse.

The Belle Widows, with Characteristic Sketches of real Personages and living Characters, a Novel. Inscribed to the Beau Monde, with a Preface, by the Editor of the Letters of Charlotte, during her Connexion with Werter. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Kerby.

These 'real personages' and 'living characters' are very trifling and insipid. If this be the Beau Monde, we shall retire contentedly to our garret, and congratulate ourselves on escaping from it: in truth the author has reached the climax of uninteresting nonsense. Even the *Belle Widows* cannot apologise for him.

The Twin Sisters; or, the Effects of Education. Vol. Fourth. 2s. 6d. Hookham.

To return to a former work, where repetition has blunted the edge of curiosity, and a knowledge of the event has weakened the interest, is an unpleasing task: the author's delay of the fourth volume of this work must be consequently pronounced an impolitic measure. Perhaps it may be owing to these circumstances that we found the volume before us heavy, languid, and uninteresting: others, who now for the first time peruse the whole, may probably find the character given in our LXVIth volume, p. 419. not unjust when applied to the complete work.

MISCELLANEOUS.

An Essay on Vision, briefly explaining the Fabric of the Eye, and the Nature of Vision: intended for the Service of those whose Eyes are weak or impaired. By George Adams, 8vo. 5s. Boards. Printed for the Author.

Mr. Adams pursues his former plan; and treats, in this volume, of the eye, and the glasses calculated to assist it when injured or diseased. He explains vision with sufficient accuracy; but does not add greatly to what other authors have already observed. He speaks of the reaction of the retina in the language of Dr. Darwin, a system which we have formerly said was gratuitous, and seemingly not well founded.

Mr. Adams advises the early use of spectacles, when the eyes begin to fail, but not as preservatives, before any defects occur. In this opinion, as well as in disapproving of the use of shades, we fully concur. Indeed the subject in general is explained very clearly and familiarly; the opinions, if we except the medical practice, and the too great commendation of electricity, are commonly just.

The Critic Philosopher; or, Truth Discovered. By A. G. Sinclair, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.

After reading this work with some care, we found ourselves entirely at a loss to guess what Dr. Sinclair meant to inculcate. The chapters are rhapsodies, wholly unconnected, containing trite reflections, plain tales, 'marred in telling them,' and violent attacks on physicians, quacks, *some* persons, devotees, and blockheads. We had proceeded so far before we looked at the title, or at least looked at it with attention. We there found the following passage:

'Reader, you will here find clearly proved, that man is greatly mistaken with regard to his own happiness; that his religious tenets and political schemes, if not discontinued, will involve him in still greater miseries: and that he has very false notions of those things which concern his peace here, and his eternal happiness hereafter.'

We receive this information with greater gratitude, since we defy the acutest critic, without assistance, to have collected a single atom of it from the work.

The interesting and affecting History of Prince Lee Boo, a Native of the Pelew Islands, brought to England by Capt. Wilson. To which is prefixed, a short Account of those Islands, with a Sketch of the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants. 12mo. 1s. Newbery,

The very entertaining account of this young prince, from Mr. Keate's Narrative, will, we doubt not, be generally pleasing. His affectionate simplicity, his unaffected good humour, his untutored politeness, and his premature death, render him a truly engaging and interesting object.

A Brief Account of the Island of Antigua. In Letters to a Friend. Written in the Years 1786, 1787, 1788. By John Luffman. 12mo. 3s. Cadell.

Mr. Luffman, the author of these Letters, gives, we believe, a very faithful and not unentertaining account of the island of Antigua. He describes the island, the climate, the manners, customs, &c. of the inhabitants, with great perspicuity. According to his narrative, the treatment of the slaves is neither so severe, nor yet so mild, as to justify what has been affirmed, on either hand, in the controversy on this subject.

Tractatus varii Latini a Crevier, Brotier, Auger, aliisque clarissimis Viris conscripti, et ad rem cum critica, tam Antiquariam pertinentes. Quibus accesserunt Notæ quamplurimæ, ad Librum de Moribus Germanorum, ex utraque. C. Taciti Editiæque Brotieriana excerptæ. 8vo. 5s. White and Son.

These short, elegant, and learned dissertations are chiefly taken from the two editions of Brotier; though Crevier, Aldus,

atus, Minutius, Rigault, Ernesti, and others, have contributed to the bulk and the value of the volume. The essay on the weights, money, &c. mentioned by Livy, taken from Crevier, has already appeared in the Decads of Livy, published with Drachenborchius's notes, and noticed in the present volume, p. 199. The second part is the most curious; the little tract on plays and theatrical entertainments, collected from different authors, is very interesting.

A Dose for the Doctors; or, the Esculapian Labyrinth explored. Inscribed to the College of Wigs. By Gregory Glyster, an old Practitioner. 4to. 3s. 6d. Kearsley.

We were greatly puzzled to discover of what class this author could be. We at last found that he was some apothecary's apprentice, who had either never learned the Latin grammar, or already forgotten it. He seems to imitate the author of the Advice to Officers, &c. but possesses not the wit, the humour, or the spirit of his predecessor. It is a vapid spiritless production, loaded with a large proportion of caput mortuum, which will not be found to contain any salt, even after incineration.

Plans of the Sunday Schools and School of Industry, established in the City of Bath; with Remarks by a Gentleman of the Committee. 8vo, 6d, Rivingtons.

The rapid progress of the Sunday-school institutions must give pleasure to all who wish well to the most important interests of mankind. It appears, from the particulars recited in the present pamphlet, that this truly laudable establishment has proved peculiarly successful at Bath, through the generous patronage of those who have affluence to support, and humanity to direct their beneficence to the most valuable objects of public welfare and improvement. We have likewise the satisfaction to find, that the Bath School of Industry, in which the children are taught employments that will enable them to earn their subsistence, is in no less prosperous a situation. In a prefatory address, the common objections, which have been made to Sunday-schools, are answered with great judgment and forcible observation.

Appel au bon Sens, &c.—An Appeal to Good Sense, in which M. de la Tour submits to that infallible Judge, the Details of his Conduct relative to an Affair that has made some Noise in the World. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Kearsley.

The author of this narrative is concerned in the *Courier de l'Europe*, and another periodical paper entitled *L'Asie*, in consequence of which publications he became acquainted with M. de Calonne. He informs us, that being one morning at the house of that gentleman, for the purpose of obtaining the latest accounts from France, he saw, in the Morning Post of the same

same day, an advertisement announcing the intended publication of Madame De la Motte's Memoirs. M. de Calonne, on learning this circumstance, said he would do any thing to hinder their publication. M. de la Tour immediately offered to go to M. and Madame de la Motte, and bargain with them for the manuscript; which offer M. de Calonne accepted. The sum which M. de la Tour demanded, and which, we are told, M. de Calonne did not think exorbitant, was sixteen hundred thousand livres (66,666l. 13s. 4d. sterling) the amount of her property which had been seized when she was made prisoner in France. M. de Calonne gave the author of the narrative power to treat with them, and authorised him to promise the sum above mentioned. He likewise ordered his banker, Sir Robert Herries, to write to Madame de la Motte, informing her that he (Sir Robert Herries) had a large sum at the disposal of M. de la Tour, as soon as the manuscript should be delivered into his hands. M. de la Motte, depending on the authority of these communications, gave up the papers. M. de Calonne making several excuses to M. de la Tour for non-payment, the latter, on his part, was under the necessity of making also excuses to M. and Madame de la Motte. Several letters were dispatched to France, for the purpose of enquiring what was to be done with these papers. In the mean time, M. de Calonne read over the manuscript, and, with the assistance of M. de la Tour, corrected the style. At last, there arrived an answer, expressing, 'that such memoirs only merited contempt.' To conclude the history of this transaction, as related in the present statement, M. de la Tour, not having received from M. de Calonne the 2500l. sterling, which he had been promised for his trouble during a negotiation continued through fourteen months, has instituted a suit in chancery.

The Trial of Mr. Atkinson, Linen-Draper of Cheap-side, for Criminal Conversation with Mrs. Conner, Wife of Mr. Conner, late of the Mitre-Barnet, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Symonds.

A trial for criminal conversation; in which the plaintiff obtained a verdict, with one thousand pounds damages.

A general Collection of Voyages; undertaken either for Discovery, Conquest, Settlement, or the Opening of Trade, from the Commencement of the Portuguese Discoveries to the present Time, Vol. I. 4to. 10s. 6d. Boards. Richardson.

This Collection of Voyages commences soon after the invention of the mariner's compass; a period to which the compilers have restricted themselves, not because they consider the history of nautical affairs as wholly uninteresting previous to that epoch, but because the most celebrated discoveries have been made since that time. They intimate, however, a resolution of combining all that history has preserved on the antecedent part of the subject, in a concise dissertation. The compilation is professedly intended for the use both of the mariner and the gentleman; and

and every thing will be retained which can afford information to the former, without rendering it tedious to those who read for amusement. The first book of the present volume contains the Portuguese voyages in the sixteenth century; the second book, the Spanish voyages in the same period; the third comprehends the Portuguese voyages during the reign of king Emanuel; and the fourth details the Spanish voyages in the beginning of the sixteenth century. The engravings in this volume are portraits of prince Henry of Portugal, and Albuquerque; with maps of Africa, India, the Canary Islands, and the West Indies; besides views of Madeira and Teneriffe.

The Adventures of a Speculist; or a Journey through London. Compiled from Papers written by G. A. Stevens; with his Life, a Preface, Corrections, and Notes, by the Author. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Bladen.

This work is compiled from papers written by the facetious George Alexander Stevens, author of the *Lecture on Heads*; an account of whose life is likewise given, with a preface, and notes, by the editor. The Adventures exhibit a picture of the manner, fashions, amusements, &c. of the metropolis at the middle of the eighteenth century; and are accompanied with several fugitive pieces of humour by the same eccentric author, now first collected and published.

P O L I T I C A L.

A Vindication of the Shop-Tax: addressed to the Landholders of England. 8vo. 1s. Gardner.

This pamphlet, we are informed by an address to the public, is the production of a youth, whose studies have been directed to subjects of a nature very different from the science of political economy. It was written before the repeal of the shop-tax; and the editor regrets, as an unfortunate circumstance, that it was not likewise published previously to that event. How far it might have operated on the sentiments of the legislature, we shall not take upon us to say; but we must acknowledge, in justice to the author, that he maintains his proposition with no small degree of ingenuity; so far at least as theoretical speculation can prove decisive of the subject. We cannot, however, all circumstances considered, approve of his warm exhortation to the landholders of England, to insist upon a repeal of the land-tax, until the shopkeepers shall, by a future impost, be rendered in some greater degree contributory than they now are, to the exigencies of the state. A procedure which tends to excite animosity among different classes of the people, ought always to be carefully avoided, in political, as well as social communities.

The Letters of a Friend to the Rockingham Party, and of an Englishman. 2s. Stockdale.

These Letters relate to the Coalition, Mr. Fox's East India bill,

bill, the state of the East India company, the delinquency of Mr. Hastings, and the characters of his accusers. On the whole, this friend, however zealous, contributes little, by his present efforts, to the fame of the Rockingham party.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE have complied with the request of our Correspondent at B. in a separate letter, which we trust he has, before this time, received. This part of our Journal; as we have often hinted, must be confined to questions arising from the conduct of the Review. The other inconvenience which he mentions we have often felt, and we trust that it will be now remedied;

WE were displeased with the application of *Vir Medicus*, on a former occasion, to another Journal; as it showed either an apprehension of our attention, or a distrust of our judgment; particularly as it was made at the time he must have expected an answer from us. There is no such connexion as he hints at; and a slight reflection must inform him from whence we had our information. If he looks at our Foreign Intelligence, he will perceive whether, from our improved plan, we can be of service to him. On the particular subject of Opium, we can add little to what is generally known. Tralles he is now acquainted with: *Wedelius de Opio* contains the best facts of the later Galenists, encumbered with much unintelligible theory; *Jones on Opium* is equally unintelligible, from his employing the mechanical and corpuscularian philosophy, which appears of greater importance to him than collecting facts: *Young*, on the contrary, contains only crude unconnected facts. In *Lindestölpe's Work de Venenis* are some important observations respecting opium. *Hailley's Theory*, on this subject, is the only part in which his system of association seems to fail. The general writers on the *Materia Medica*, our Correspondent may be acquainted with from *Dr. Cullen's Introduction*; to which we were able, in our review of the work, to make some additions. Respecting the collection of opium, he must trust to the description of *Kämpfer* in the *Aménitæ Exoticæ*; and to some papers in the late volumes of the *Philosophical Transactions*.

In our Review for January we hope to give a particular and satisfactory view of the dispute respecting the Bampton Lecture.— And in the same Journal will be given an examination of the principles and tendency of Dr. Price's Discourse on the Love of our Country.

A P P E N D I X

TO THE

CRITICAL REVIEW,

VOLUME THE SIXTY-EIGHTH.

Aristotle's Treatise on Poetry, translated, &c. By T. Twining.
The Poetic of Aristotle, translated, &c. By H. J. Pye, Esq.
(Concluded, from p. 366.)

AS the rival translators had the same object in view, to give a consistent, a suitable, and an accurate version of the Poetics, they become fair objects of comparison. It is necessary, however, to discriminate our observations; and we shall first consider Mr. Twining's translation separately, and then attend to Mr. Pye: after a few remarks on each, we shall bring the passages which we have quoted together, and compare their different merits. Perhaps we may conclude with the old pastoral umpire—*Vitula tu dignus & hic!* As Mr. Twining's version is accompanied by numerous notes, it is best adapted for the first examination; and convenience, as we observed in our former article, is the only foundation of this preference.

We must first select the introduction, as we have already hinted that we differ in opinion from Mr. Twining, in the translation of one passage.

‘ My design is to treat of poetry in general, and of its several species—to inquire, what is the proper effect of each—what construction of a fable or plan is essential to a good poem—of what, and how many parts each species consists; with whatever else belongs to the same subject: which I shall consider in the order that most naturally presents itself.

‘ Epic poetry, tragedy, comedy, dithyrambics*, as also for the most part, the music of the flute, and of the lyre—all these are, in the most general view of them, imitations; differing, however, from each other in three respects, according to the different means, the different objects, or the different manner, of their imitation.

* Dithyrambic poetry among the ancients, was very frequently narrative and sometimes dramatic.

‘ For as men, some through art and some through habit, imitate various objects, by means of colour and figure, and others again by voice ; so with respect to the arts above-mentioned, rhythm, words, and melody, are the different means by which, either single, or variously combined, they all produce their imitation.

‘ For example : in the imitations of the flute and the lyre, and of any other instruments capable of producing a similar effect, as the syrinx, or pipe, melody and rhythm only are employed. In those of dance, rhythm alone without melody ; for there are dancers who, by rhythm applied to gesture, express manners, passions, and actions.

‘ The epopœia imitates by words alone, or by verse ; and that verse may either be composed of various metres, or confined according to the practice hitherto established to a single species. For we should otherwise have no general name which would comprehend the mimes of Sophron and Xenarchus, and the Socratic dialogues ; or poems in iambic, elegiac, or other metres, in which the epic species of imitation may be conveyed. Custom indeed, connecting the poetry, or making with the metre, has denominated some elegiac poets, i. e. makers of elegiac verse ; others, epic poets, i. e. makers of hexameter verse ; thus distinguishing the poets, not according to the nature of their imitation, but according to that of their metre only. For even they who compose treatises of medicine or natural philosophy in verse, are denominated poets ; yet Homer and Empedocles have nothing in common, except their metre ; the former, therefore, justly merits the name of poet, while the other should rather be called a physiologist than a poet.

‘ So also, though any one should chuse to convey his imitation in every kind of metre promiscuously, as Chaeremon has done in his Centaur, which is a medley of all sorts of verse, it would not immediately follow, that on that account merely, he was entitled to the name of poet.—But of this enough.—

‘ There are again, other species of poetry which make use of all the means of imitation, rhythm, melody, and verse. Such are the dithyrambic, that of nomes, tragedy, and comedy ; with this difference, however, that in some of these, they are employed all together, in others, separately. And such are the differences of these arts with respect to the means by which they imitate.’

In this introduction we might make some minuter remarks, and doubt whether it were proper to alter the terms of an author so strictly logical as Aristotle. To treat of poetry itself, and its various *forms*, conveys a more accurate idea than species. What fable or plan *is essential to a good poem* is probably a correct version of *τι μελλει καλως εξειη ποιησις* ; but if we could have found such a mode of expression employed, we should have suspected that the author meant *is essential to its success, ut bene evadat*. These are, however, trifles : what we formerly

merly alluded to is 'the music of the flute or lyre,' καὶ τῆς ἀλλοτρίης ἢ πλίσσης καὶ καθαριστικῆς—the literal construction certainly is the greater part belonging to the flute and the lyre; as ποίησις occurs before, and as the whole is afterwards connected by the word πασαι, there is little doubt but poetry was meant, especially as poetry and the construction of a poem is the subject announced. Indeed, in a subsequent paragraph, αὐλετικῆ and καθαριστικῆ are connected with harmony and cadence, and opposed to λογῶν, which should certainly be translated *language*; but the author alludes there to the power of the instrument, independent of the words added to it, and distinguishes it in a manner not to be mistaken.

In a subsequent paragraph, 'for as men, &c.' Mr. Twining has not preserved the force of ἀπεικάζοντες, assimilantes; but we know no word appropriated to it in English. Mimics would be improper, as not including painters, and the last would not include the former. To make the sentence more elegant, we suspect our author has confused the meaning of the Stagyræite:—A natural and almost literal translation might have been adopted, we think, with success. For as some painters imitate by means of figures and colouring, some mimic through skill, some through habit, and others only in the tone of the voice; so, in the arts we have been speaking of, imitation is effected by rhythm, by language, and by harmony. We own that there may be exceptions to this translation, which cannot easily be avoided, unless we adopt the suggestion of Heinsius and some others, and read δι' αὐτοῖς instead of διὰ τῆς φωνῆς. We would then translate more accurately, for as some painters imitate by means of figures and colouring, either through skill, practice, or both; so in, &c*.

In the same way, Mr. Twining has in another paragraph altered the close pointed manner of Aristotle, to make a more rounded period; and we suspect too that σχηματίζομενοι ῥυθμῶν is not properly rendered by rhythm, *applied to* gesture. If he had said *connected with* figure, or with figured movements, it would have been less liable to objection.

The epopœia undoubtedly means every species of composition that is imitative; and the λόγοι ψιλλοί, which have puzzled commentators so much, like the exigui elegi in Horace, probably mean either what we should call 'bumble prose,' or verse divested of its poetic fire. Mr. Twining has rendered it with

* An emendation proposed by Mr. Twining from the conjecture of Robertelli, and said to occur in an ancient MS. is very ingenious, and the passage would then have this force. — For, as some artists imitate by means of figures and colours, either through skill or practice, and some by means of the voice *περὶ δὲ τῆ φωνῆς*, &c. If this be allowed, *διὰ τῆς φωνῆς* and *διὰ συνθέσεως* are parenthetical.

great propriety, though we think he has confined it too much. In the notes, he distinguishes *λογος ψαλλειν* as words without metre, or, more strictly, without melody or rhythm. But imitation is so fully in Aristotle's mind (and the narrative and the dramatic forms of dialogues are species of it) that we can perceive no impropriety in the meaning which we have assigned, a meaning not very different from the common one, and supported by the almost literal translation, which occurs in his follower, Horace. In a subsequent passage, where Aristotle speaks of the Centaur of Chæremon, we own that we are not satisfied with our author's argument, and are willing to suppose with him, that the text is corrupted. The tenor of the passage leads us to adopt Heinsius' addition of the note of interrogation, for the general distinguishing principle imitation is allowed, and this is the only foundation on which Empedocles' verse is excluded. The word *ομιμειν* is not a great obstacle, for we might translate—'in a similar way; even if any one should mix every kind of metre, and of these form an imitative work, should he not be still called a poet?'

This passage has detained us so long, that we shall step on more quickly; and the next that we shall examine, is designed rather as a specimen of the precision and the judgment of Aristotle, than a trial of skill between the translators. It is the fourteenth chapter, on the means of exciting pity and terror. We shall transcribe, as before, from Mr. Twining.

' Since, therefore, it is the business of the tragic poet to give that pleasure which arises from pity and terror, through imitation, it is evident, that he ought to produce that effect by the circumstances of the action itself.

' Let us then see of what kind those incidents are, which appear most terrible or pitious.

' Now such actions must, of necessity, happen between persons who are either friends or enemies, or indifferent to each other. If an enemy kills, or purposes to kill, an enemy, in neither case is any commiseration raised in us, beyond what necessarily arises from the nature of the action itself.

' The case is the same, when the persons are neither friends nor enemies. But when such disasters happen between friends, when, for instance, the brother kills, or is going to kill his brother, the son his father, the mother her son, or the reverse—these, and others of a similar kind, are the proper incidents for the poet's choice. The received tragic subjects, therefore, he is not at liberty essentially to alter; Clytæmnestra must die by the hand of Orestes, and Eriphyle by that of Alcæon; but it is his province to invent other subjects, and to make a skilful use of those which he finds already established.—What I mean by a skilful use I proceed to explain.

' The atrocious action may be perpetrated knowingly and
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ntentionally, as was usual with the earlier poets; and as Euripides also has represented Medea destroying her children.

‘ It may likewise be perpetrated by those who are ignorant at the time of the connection between them and the injured person, which they afterwards discover; like Oedipus in Sophocles. There indeed, the action itself does not make a part of the drama: the Alcæon of Astydamas, and Telegonus in the Ulysses Wounded, furnish instances within the tragedy*.

‘ There is yet a third way, where a person upon the oint of perpetrating, through ignorance, some dreadful deed, is prevented by a sudden discovery.

‘ Beside these, there is no other proper way. For the action must of necessity be either done or not done, and that either with knowledge or without: but of all these ways, that of being ready to execute knowingly, and yet not executing, is the worst; for this is, at the same time, shocking, and yet not tragic, because it exhibits no disastrous event. It is, therefore, never, or very rarely, made use of. The attempt of Hæmon to kill Creon, in the Antigone, is an example.

‘ Next to this is the actual execution of the purpose.

‘ To execute through ignorance, and afterwards to discover, is better: for thus, the shocking atrociousness is avoided, and at the same time, the discovery is striking.

‘ But the best of all these ways is the last. Thus in the tragedy of Cressphontes, Merope, in the very act of putting her son to death, discovers him, and is prevented. In the Iphigenia, the sister in the same manner discovers her brother; and in the Helle, the son discovers his mother at the instant when he was going to betray her.’

In the whole of this passage we can scarcely find room for criticism: it is translated with great judgment, ability, and accuracy. Yet, as it is our duty to discover what appear to be blemishes, as well as to praise, we may remark, that the subject is improperly and unnecessarily broken by divisions: a well connected, or, occasionally, a contrasted language, would have produced the same effect more pleasingly. In the passage too—‘ but when such disasters,’ &c. we think ‘ the reverse’ is not the full or the strictly proper meaning of *ἡ τοιοῦτος τὸ ἄλλο ὄρα*. We should translate it—when, for instance, the brother kills

* Of these two dramas nothing more is known than the little that Aristotle here tells us. In the first, the poet adhered so far to history, as to make Alcæon kill his mother Eriphyle, but with the improvement, (according to Aristotle’s idea) of making him do it ignorantly. The story of Telegonus is, that he was a son of Ulysses by Circe; was sent by her in quest of his father, whom he wounded, without knowing him, in a skirmish relative to some sheep; that he attempted to carry off from the island of Ithaca. It is somewhat singular, that the wound is said to have been given with a kind of Otaheite spear, headed with a sharp fish-bone. See Pope’s *Odyssey* XI. 167. and the note.

his brother, the son his father, the mother her son; when they have it only in contemplation, or commit any similar enormity, &c. In a subsequent passage, 'Besides these,' &c. the difficulty which has puzzled translators is easily evaded or explained. Aristotle had mentioned three different methods; but he now enumerates four; and the fourth he immediately adds is villainous ('shocking' is perhaps too strong a word for the substitute of *μωρος*) and not tragic, because no one suffers. The 'shocking atrociousness' afterwards, we suspect, is equally exceptionable. The difficulty is evaded by the translation which our author has given of *παρὰ ταῦτα οὐκ ἔστιν ἄλλος*—Besides these there is no other proper way, or no other way admissible: *οὐκ* and *ἔστιν* have more than once, particularly in Homer, the force of licet.

We may perhaps find room for one other specimen, and it must be the last. We shall select it from Aristotle's comparison between the epopœia and tragedy. The following is Mr. Twining's translation of the latter part of the twenty-fourth chapter.

'The surprising is necessary in tragedy; but the epic poem goes farther, and admits even the improbable and incredible, from which the highest degree of the surprising results, because there the action is not seen. The circumstances, for example, of the pursuit of Hector by Achilles, are such, as upon the stage would appear ridiculous;—the Grecian army standing still, and taking no part in the pursuit, and Achilles making signs to them by the motion of his head not to interfere*. But in the epic poem this escapes our notice. Now the wonderful always pleases, as is evident from the additions which men always make in relating any thing, in order to gratify the hearers.

† It is from Homer principally that other poets have learned the art of feigning well. It consists in a sort of sophism. When one thing is observed to be constantly accompanied or followed by another, men are apt to conclude, that if the latter is, or has happened, the former must also be; or must have happened. But this an error. * * * * * For, knowing the latter to be true, the mind is betrayed into the false inference, that the first is true also.

‡ The poet should prefer impossibilities † which appear probable,

* * Pope's Iliad, XXII. 267.—Perhaps the idea of stopping a whole army by a nod or shake of the head, (a circumstance distinctly mentioned by Homer, but sunk in Mr. Pope's version), was the absurdity here principally meant. If this whole Homeric scene were represented on our stage in the best manner possible, there can be no doubt, that the effect would justify Aristotle's observation. It would certainly set the audience in a roar.

† This includes all that is called fairy, machinery, ghosts, witches, enchantments,

bable, to such things as, though possible, appear improbable. Far from producing a plan made up of improbable incidents, he should, if possible, admit no one circumstance of that kind; or if he does, it should be exterior to the action itself, like the ignorance of Oedipus concerning the manner in which Laius died; not within the drama, like the narrative of what happened at the Pythian games in the *Electra*; or in the *Myfians*, the man who travels from Tegea to Myfia without speaking. To say, that without these circumstances the fable would have been destroyed, is a ridiculous excuse: the poet should take care from the first, not to construct his fable in that manner. If, however, any thing of this kind has been admitted, and yet is made to pass under some colour of probability, it may be allowed, though even in itself absurd. Thus in the *Odyssey*, the improbable account of the manner in which Ulysses was landed upon the shore of Ithaca, is such, as in the hands of an ordinary poet would evidently have been intolerable: but here, the absurdity is concealed under the various beauties of other kinds with which the poet has embellished it.

* The diction should be most laboured in the idle parts * of the poem—those in which neither manners nor sentiments prevail; for the manners and the sentiments are only obscured by too splendid a diction.*

We may, perhaps, remark, that *αλογον*, for we admit Victorius' emendation, since the sentence is unintelligible without it, is not accurately rendered by 'improbable and incredible;' and that the single word, *unreasonable*, would come nearer to the sense and the tenour of the passage; but the whole is translated so well, and with so much force and propriety, that we ought not to attend to minute, inconsiderable errors. We of course admit of our author's explanation of *αι δι θυ, και φαινηται ενλογιστερον*; the *αργα μνη* and of *δανοητικος*. These passages have been differently understood, but our chief object was that marked with astericks, for which our translator refers to the note; and it is one of the most difficult sentences

chantments, &c.—things, according to Hobbes, "beyond the actual bounds, and only within the conceived possibility of nature." [See the Letters on Chivalry, as above.] Such a being as Caliban, for example, is impossible. Yet Shakspeare has made the character appear probable; not certainly to reason, but to imagination: that is, we make no difficulty about the possibility of it in reading. Is not the *Lovelace* of Richardson, in this view, more out of nature, more improbable, than the Caliban of Shakspeare? The latter is, at least, consistent. I can imagine such a monster as Caliban: I never could imagine such a man as *Lovelace*.*

* In the strictly narrative, or descriptive parts, where the poet speaks in his own person, and the imitation, the drama, which Aristotle considers as the true business of poetry, is suspended. These he calls the idle parts. The expression is applicable also to tragedy; for though its imitation is throughout, yet every drama must have its comparatively idle parts.*

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in the whole work. The words are (we quote from Duval's edition*) ἀλλ' ὅτι, ἂν τὸ πρότερον ψευδὲς ἄλλω δὲ τὸ τῷ τῷ ἴσως (Victorius reads ἀλλ' ἀλλ' τῷ τῷ ἴσως) αἰετὶς ἵνα ἡ γένεσις πρὸς τὴν αἰετὶς. The text our author gives up as doubtful; but we shall take the opportunity of giving a specimen of the notes from that which Mr. Twining has added to this passage. Our author enquires in what manner Aristotle meant to apply this logical paralogism to Homer's management of fiction. After explaining the nature of a logical paralogism a consequenti, he goes on:

‘The similitude of the logical and poetic sophism appears to me to be this. It is not merely that where there is a mixture of history and fiction, the truth makes the fiction pass; but the comparison, I think, relates to the connection between the fictions of the poet, considered as cause and effect, as antecedent and consequent. The poet invents certain extraordinary characters, incidents, and situations. When the actions and the language of those characters, and in general, the consequences of those events or situations, as drawn out into detail by the poet, are such as we know, or think, to be true—that is to say, poetically true, or natural; such, as we are satisfied must necessarily, or would probably, follow, if such characters and situations actually existed; this probability, nature, or truth of representation, imposes on us sufficiently for the purposes of poetry. It induces us to believe with hypothetic and voluntary faith, the existence of those false events and imaginary personages, those ἀδύνατα, ἀλέγα, ψευδή—those marvellous and incredible fictions, which, otherwise managed, we should have rejected: that is, their improbability or impossibility, would have so forced themselves upon our notice, as to destroy or disturb even the slight and willing illusion of the moment.

‘Whenever, says the philosopher, supposing such a thing to be, it would certainly be followed by such effects; if we see those effects, we are disposed to infer the existence of that cause. And thus in poetry, and all fiction, this is the logic of that temporary imposition on which depends our pleasure. The reader of a play or a novel, does not indeed syllogise, and say to himself—“Such beings as are here supposed, had they existed, must have acted and spoken exactly in this manner; therefore, I believe they have existed:”—but he feels the truth of the premises, and he consents to feel the truth of the conclusion; he does not revolt from the imagination of such beings. Every thing follows so naturally, and even, as it seems, so necessarily, that the probability and truth of nature in the consequences, steals, in a manner, from our view, even the impossibility of the cause, and flings an air of truth over the whole. With respect to fact, indeed, all is equally ψευδές; for if the causes exist not, neither

* P. 672. D. α seems to be omitted by mistake before πρὸς τὴν αἰετὶς.

can the effects. But the consequent lies are so told, as to impose on us for the moment, the belief of the antecedent or fundamental lie.

Instances of these lies, for we have Aristotle's authority for this harsh word, are numerous: Homer's speciosa miracula; the monsters from the creative powers of our own Shakspeare, and the fancies of Ariosto as well as of the wilder and enchanted poets, one of whom we lately followed in his visionary world, might, if necessary, be adduced.

We shall now turn to Mr. Pye; and, to take a more ample range through the Poetic, we had designed to select other passages, to determine the merit of his translation. This would have been necessary if our object was to review the work of Aristotle instead of examining the rival versions; but, if we select the translation of the same parts, our readers will be better able to judge of their different attempts, our article will be brought into a smaller compass, and the contrast at last will be neither difficult nor tedious.

The introduction, which was the part we first transcribed from Mr. Twining, is rendered in the following manner by Mr. Pye.

'I propose to treat of the poetic art itself, and its several species; of the power possessed by each, and how the fables should be constructed that the poetry may have a beautiful arrangement; of the quality and number of its parts, and of other things belonging to the subject; beginning, according to the natural order, with its first principles.

'The epopee and tragedy, and also comedy and dithyrambics, and the greatest part of those compositions which are set to the flute and the lyre, all agree in the general character of being imitations; but they are distinguished from each other by three circumstances; either by using means of imitation different in their kind, or by the difference of the things imitated, or by imitating in a different manner.

'For as there are some artists who either through skill or practice, imitate many things by lines and colours, and others by the voice†; so all the arts just mentioned effect an imitation

† I see no reason for substituting δι' ἀκροῦς, for διὰ τῆς φωνῆς, in this place, as is proposed by Heinsius, Dacier, and Batteux: χράματα, σχήματα, and φωνῆς, are the words opposed to ῥυθμὸς, λόγος, and ἀμεταίε, and not διὰ σχήματος, and διὰ συνθέσεως, as Batteux has supposed. "Les uns exécutent par certains pratiques de l'art, les autres par l'habitude seul, quelques-uns par l'un et l'autre ensemble; de même—l'imitation se fait ou par un seul de ces moyens, (i. e. le rhythm, la parole, et le chant,) ou par plusieurs, ensemble." But I do not see what opposition there can be between the manner by which a person acquires excellence in one art, and the means he uses to effect an imitation in another. The imitation διὰ τῆς φωνῆς does not mean by words, but by sounds, like the imitation of the singing of birds, or that effected by vocal music, when the artist tries to make the sound "an echo to the sense."

by means of rhythm, of language, and of harmony; and these either separate or mixed. Those things, for example, which are set to the flute or the lyre, or any other instrument of the same powers, as the pipe, imitate by rhythm and harmony alone; while the dance imitates by rhythm only, independent of harmony; for the dance by its figured movements can imitate manners, passions, and actions. The epopee uses plain language or verse, either mixing different measures, or confining itself to one sort, as has continued the practice to the present time. For else there would be no general name by which we could distinguish the mimes of Sophron and Xenarchus, and the Socratic dialogues, or even the imitations that might be made in trimeters, elegiac verse, or other measures of the same sort, except indeed, that men, affixing the idea of poetry to versification, call some elegiac and others epic poets, not as being poets from the imitation, but merely on account of the verse. Nay, if they produce any thing in verse on the arts of medicine or music, they give them the same appellation; but Homer and Empedocles have nothing in common with each other except the verse; therefore, though one indeed may justly be styled a poet, the other is rather a naturalist than a poet: and for the same reason, if a person should form an imitation by mixing all kinds of verse together, (like the Hippocentaur of Chæremón, which is a mixed rhapsody of all measures) he may yet be esteemed a poet. This is the proper distinction of these things.

There are some kinds of poetry that employ all the means that have been mentioned, viz. rhythm, melody, and verse; as the dithyrambics and the nomoi, and tragedy also, and comedy: and yet these differ from each other, some using them all at the same time, and others in separate parts.

These are the differences of the arts, as to the means by which the imitation is made.

It will be obvious that Mr. Pye, with a translation sufficiently literal, has preserved the free air of an original. Its accuracy is, in general, very considerable; but he must allow us the same liberty which we have taken with Mr. Twining. The 'beautiful arrangement' is probably suggested by the word *καλώς*; but in Greek *καλός* often meant *good*; *pulcher* had the same force in Latin, and it is preserved in most modern languages. Its too extensive application has furnished Voltaire with some pleasantry in his Philosophical Dictionary. 'Beginning according to the natural order with its first principles' is a version not less neat than accurate. In the subsequent passage he has rendered *αὐδαιτικῆς ἢ πλείστη καὶ καθαριτικῆς* in the way which we formerly observed appeared to be most correct.

We have preserved the note added by Mr. Pye to the passage which we found so difficult; but, it will appear from what

what we have already said, that we cannot agree with him in his opinion. Unless *τη φωνη* be read instead of *δια της φωνης*, the voice must be connected with 'skill and habit,' and the objection which will occur to the learned reader against our first translation, will militate with equal strength against his: the force of *δια* is not preserved. Harmony, as in the translation before us, is undoubtedly the nearest interpretation of *αρμογιας*; yet as one instrument only is concerned, it would be better, we think, to translate it *melody*. 'Figured movements' is very near to Aristotle's meaning.

Mr. Pye renders, as the reader will perceive, *ψιλλοι λογοι* by 'plain language.' It is very near our own interpretation. He suggests too an ingenious alteration in the text, though a bold one, viz. by adding *ωσαν* before *μιμησιν*, and making the verb *ποιειν* neuter, a mode in which it is frequently used, he says, by Aristotle. The force of the passage then would be, 'for else there would be no general name by which these different works could be distinguished, except imitations:' we suspect this reading will not bear a critical examination. In a subsequent passage, Mr. Pye's translation of poets and poems preserves the force of the passage, as well as the more literal version, 'makers,' &c. and with more neatness. In the next doubtful sentence which we formerly alluded to, Mr. Pye evades the difficulty by rejecting with Mr. Winstanley the words *ex ηδη*. It is less violent to add the note of interrogation.

The second passage which we selected from Mr. Twining is a part of the fourteenth chapter: it is thus rendered by Mr. Pye:

'Since then it is the business of the tragic poet to afford that entertainment from his imitation, which may arise from the passions of pity and terror, it is evident this ought to be effected by the actions themselves. We will consider, therefore, what circumstances will appear dreadful and lamentable. Actions of this sort must either happen between friends or enemies, or indifferent persons. Now, if one enemy kills another, no pity is excited, either while the action is performed, or meditated, except what arises from the suffering of the person. It is the same between those who are indifferent to each other. Such stories, then, should be sought after where the misfortune happens between those who are dear to each other; as when a brother kills, or attempts to kill, or otherwise injures a brother, a son his father, a mother her son, or a son his mother.

'It is by no means allowable to deviate from received stories; such, I mean, as Clytemnestra being killed by Orestes, and

‡ See Duval, vol. ii. p. 653. A.

Eriphyle by Alcmaeon. But it is the poet's office to invent fables himself, and arrange the circumstances of those already received with propriety. I will explain more clearly what I mean by propriety of arrangement.

Actions may either be represented according to the practice of the ancients, as performed by persons knowing what they are about, like Medea destroying her children in the tragedy of Euripides; or some dreadful deed may be acted by a person not knowing what he does, and the relation and friendship of the characters may be discovered afterwards; either as in the *Oedipus* of Sophocles, where the action is performed prior to the opening of the drama; or it may be comprised in the tragedy itself, as in the Alcmaeon of Aëtydamus, and the character of Telegonus in the *Ulysses Wounded*. A third method may be added to these, viz. for a person to be near committing some shocking action through ignorance, and to make the discovery before he does it. And there is no other method except these, for a person must either act, or not act, and must either know what he does, or not know what he does; but of these forms, a person going to act, knowing what he is about to do, and then not acting, is so much the worst, (being odious from the wickedness of the intention, and not tragical as no one suffers), that none have written in this way, a very few instances excepted, as, for example, Hæmon with regard to Creon, in the tragedy of *Antigone*. That where the deed is actually performed, is not so bad. It is still better when the deed is performed ignorantly, and the discovery made afterwards; for there will be no wicked intention, and the discovery will be very affecting. But the last method is the best, as in the tragedy of *Cresphontes*, where Merope, being on the point of killing her son, discovers who he is, and saves his life; and in the same manner, in the tragedy of *Iphigenia*, the sister discovers her brother, and in the tragedy of *Helle*, the son knows his mother just as he is going to deliver her up.

Our translator is again literal, generally accurate, pointed, and forcible. Where he speaks of arranging the circumstances with propriety, and then explains after his author what it is to arrange with propriety, he seems to lose all these valuable qualities, and to be a little inconsistent. The words are *καλὰ καλῶς*; and if *καλῶς* was before a *beautiful* arrangement, it should continue so still. In reality, we have nothing about arrangement, and only a distant allusion to propriety. Perhaps it might have been strictly accurate if he had said, and to *employ* the circumstances of those already received with *advantage*. There is another inaccuracy in not giving the force of *εἰς* licet, as we mentioned in our remarks on Mr. Twining. Riccoboni's version, annexed to Duval's edition of the *Poetic*, might have led to it; and his own remarks in a note added, show that

that this meaning was in his mind, though it was not expressed. Yet, on the whole, this is a very advantageous specimen of Mr. Pye's abilities.

The third passage we shall now transcribe from Mr. Pye.

‘ Though wonder ought to be excited by tragedy, yet things * contrary to reason, from which the marvellous chiefly arises, are better admitted in the epopee, from the action not being placed before the eyes. In the pursuit of Hector, the circumstance of the Greeks standing still and not following, and Achilles making signs for them to stop, would appear ridiculous on the stage; but in the epopee the absurdity is concealed. In general, whatever is wonderful is pleasing; as a proof of which, whoever relates any fact is apt to add something marvellous to gratify the hearers.

‘ Homer also was the best instructor how to introduce specious fallacies by means of false reasoning†. For men are apt to imagine, if some circumstances generally follow certain causes, that when those circumstances appear, the former events which usually preceded them must also have happened: so, if the latter circumstance be false, they conclude improperly that the former is so too: but it does not follow, that because the latter circumstance is real, that the former must necessarily have preceded it; yet, knowing the consequence certainly to exist, the mind, reasoning falsely, supposes the cause to exist likewise.

‘ He ‡ also teaches us to prefer impossible circumstances, if they are probable, to possible ones that are improbable, and not to form the fable of parts that are contrary to reason: care should be taken as much as possible to admit nothing absurd; but if it cannot be avoided, it should at least be confined to circumstances out of the action itself, as in the case of Oedipus being ignorant of the manner of Laius's death, or the man in the tragedy of the Mysians, who comes from Tegea to Mysia without speaking. And it is ridiculous to say that otherwise the fables would be destroyed, for such fables should not at first be formed; but if they are so formed, it seems most reasonable to hide the absurdity as much as possible. The improbabilities in the Odyssey, (such, for instance, as the account of Ulysses being cast on shore), would have been intolerable, if they had been written by

* * Ἀλογον. δι' ἰ.—VITTORIO.

† No part of the Poetic has perplexed the commentators more than this; and as it is usually printed and pointed, it is impossible to make any sense of it. I have, therefore, inserted the original, pointed differently, but with no alterations but what are justified by MSS. Οἷονταί γὰρ ἀδελφοί οὗτοι ὅτι τοὺς ὄντας ἢ γινόμενους τοὺς γινώσκουσιν, εἰ τὸ ἐκείνην ἴσται, καὶ τὸ πρότερον εἶναι ἢ γινώσκουσιν, τούτοις δι' ἴσται ψεύδεται δι' ἰ' Εἴη δὲ τὸ πρότερον ψεύδεται. Ἄλλ' οὐτάρ τέτοις δόξαι, ἀδελφοί εἶναι ἢ γινώσκουσιν ἢ προσηύχεται.

‡ Προαίρεσθαι, καὶ μὴ ζυγισσέσθαι I conceive to be governed by Ὁμοίως διδιδάχαι.

an indifferent poet : but there the poet entirely conceals what is absurd by other pleasing circumstances*.

'The language ought particularly to be laboured in those uninteresting parts which are neither moral nor sentimental ; for the manners and sentiment are obscured by too splendid a diction.'

The first sentence is very correctly rendered, retaining Viciotius' very judicious emendation of *αλογον, δι δ*.—The doubtful and disputed passage is made very clear by the alteration which we have preserved in the note, and it is so little forced or arbitrary, that it may be safely admitted, though we could have wished that the manuscripts whose authority is mentioned, had been particularly quoted.

'He also teaches us,' &c. we suspect to be erroneous ; for Homer occurs so far back, that it is not probable Aristotle meant to continue the precept from his example : besides, he is now evidently returned to tragedy, and the instances are not taken from Homer, but from Sophocles. We must, therefore, suppose *δι*, or some similar word, to be elliptical. This error has affected the pointing of the following sentence, and we are sorry also to remark, that Mr. Pye has omitted the force of *το δραματι* as opposed to *ἐξω τῷ μυθευματος*, which our readers will remark is preserved by Mr. Twining. In the subsequent passage our translator, as appears in the note, alters the reading of the common versions, though we think without reason. Mr. Twining's translation is sufficiently clear, while at the same time it is consistent with the text of Duval. In the last paragraph 'moral,' except in the most distant sense, is improper : *ηθικος* certainly means what relates to manners ; it would be translated undoubtedly in French *moraux* ; but we have formerly said, that *moral* is an improper translation of that word. Perhaps it slipped inadvertently into the text while Batteux lay on the table ; though, as we have not that version at hand, this must be conjecture merely.

We have now followed our translators with unusual care and attention ; for the difficulty of the attempt was no less considerable than their labours have been in general successful. After comparing many different passages, we have selected these, as affording the best specimens of their respective merits ; and, for the unlearned reader, some information of the contents of this celebrated treatise. What we shall add is the suggestion of the more extensive compa-

* I have endeavoured to give the best interpretation I could of this passage, reading *ἐνδύχαισθαι* for *ἐνδύχασθαι*, as proposed by Winstanley, and *ἀφαιζῆναι* for *ἐμφανίζῆναι*, with Vitturio.

rison,

tion, though it will perhaps be sufficiently supported by the passages which we have quoted.

We have already hinted that Mr. Twining has broken the natural order of Aristotle's work, by distinctions into chapters and sections, where, probably, the author did not design any similar separation, and in some instances where the tenour of the subject does not support the divisions. If this error does not appear in our quotations, it is because we could ill spare the space which would be lost in preserving the distinctions; and because, in reality, the error is not often of great importance. Mr. Pye's order is the natural one. If we compare the general effect of these two versions, there will appear, on the whole, no great superiority on either side. The language of each is free, clear, and elegant, without disagreeable inversions, or idiomatical deformities. If we look more nearly, and compare them with the original, we shall see Mr. Twining more often aiming at a rounded period, and sacrificing to it occasionally the pointed contrast, or the logical precision of his author. His sentences, indeed, are not broken more than those of Aristotle, but they are broken in a different manner, and do not show the peculiarity of that author's diction. Mr. Pye's translation is more close, more pointed, though in a few instances, a word or a short sentence, is less correctly or less elegantly rendered. Mr. Pye's errors may be easily found, as his version flows in an easy tenour, close to the original: Mr. Twining must be examined more accurately; for he will often give the force of an additional clause, in some part of the preceding sentence.

If we consider the substance of these different translations, we cannot deny either author the praise of great accuracy and of extensive knowledge. Mr. Twining, we suspect, has engaged in a more extensive examination of different versions, and of the force and meaning of particular passages. Mr. Pye has not been inattentive to different sources of information, and his more contracted limits may have prevented the addition of those observations which his critical examinations had suggested. On the whole, however, we perceive less of this minute attention in the latter than in the former volume. Yet it must have been observed, that the translators often differ; and as we have with little ceremony told each where we differ from him, if we find only shades of distinction in ascertaining their respective merits, it will not be attributed to an anxiety of pleasing both. In reality, their difference in so abstruse and difficult a work, is no imputation on either, for we know that the meaning of the original was designedly obscured; and our differing from them must be allowed the same excuse where we

are wrong. Those who know the difficulty of the work will best excuse the inaccuracies of either. As both are very good, to give a preference would be invidious: yet, perhaps, we may be allowed to add, that we could read Mr. Pye's version with more pleasure, and study Mr Twining's with more profit.

Edvardi-Rouvi Moresi, A. M. et Soc. Ant. Soc. de Ælfrico; Dorobernensi Archiepiscopo, Commentarius: ex Autographo in Bibliotheca Thomæ Aflei, Arm. asservato. Edidit et Præfatus est Grimus Johannis Thorkelin, LL. D. 4to. 10s. 6d. Egertons.

IT was for some time a doubt among antiquaries, whether Ælfric, archbishop of Canterbury, was really the translator of the Saxon Homilies. Leland went still farther, and endeavoured to show that there were three Ælfrics. One of these he suspects to have been the author of the Saxon Grammar; the second the translator of the Homilies; and the third the brother of the archbishop. The first was styled the Grammarian, and was the metropolitan; the others are distinguished as Ælfricus Presbyter, and Ælfricus Albanensis, from being abbot of the monastery of St. Alban's. Mr. Wise, in his letter to Mr. Mores, published in the introduction to this work, thinks that Ælfric was of noble birth; bred a monk in the abbey of Abingdon, under Athelwald; made abbot of St. Alban's in 969; went to regulate Cerney abbey, founded in 337, which seems to have fallen into some disorders, where he wrote the book of the Homilies; was made bishop of Wilton in 989, about which time he seems to have written his Latin Saxon Grammar and Glossary, whence he obtained the name of Grammaticus; succeeded Sigeric in the archiepiscopal throne of Canterbury in 995; and died the 15th of November 1006. By this explanation, without any great inconsistency, and on good authorities, he attributes to one person the different attempts of the three Ælfrics of Leland; and, in the most important points, Mr. Mores agrees with him. But Mr. Wise is not contented with making him a grammarian and archbishop. He thinks he was the Alfstan mentioned by Florence of Worcester, who, as bishop of Wilton, was joined with dukes Ælfric and Theored, as well as with Ælscuine, bishop of Dorchester, in the command of the great fleet fitted out against the Danes in 992; for at that period our Ælfric was on the episcopal throne of Wilton. Ælfric was also, in Mr. Wise's opinion, our first reformer, since he introduced the knowledge of the Scriptures among the laity, and, together with Wulfstan his

• See Crit. Rev. Vol. lxiii. p. 410.

pupl, and Ælfric Bata, the eleve of Wolstan, formed the most splendid luminaries of the Saxon church. Ælfric, Mr. Wise thinks, wrote the first and more imperfect life of St. Æthelwold; Wolstan wrote the second, a more correct one, and Ælfric Bata wrote a third. The fragment of the History of Judith, attributed to our Ælfric, Mr. Wise supposes to have been of much earlier origin; and the Danish Saxon dialect to have been really the Old Saxon.

This Life of Ælfric is published by Dr. Thorkelin, from Mr. Mores' MS. in the library of Mr. Affle; and the introduction concludes with a catalogue of Mr. Mores' other works; and a suitable encomium on his industry and learning.

The work commences with a state of the dispute which the different offices and works of Ælfric have occasioned. The three Ælfrics of Leland, Cave brought to two; and Warton at last reduced to one. Usher had formerly supposed that there was no more than one Ælfric; but he loaded his hypothesis by additional circumstances, which rendered it less probable. Warton's opinion was encumbered, however, with some difficulties, which were not easily removed. At last the three Ælfrics of Leland were reduced to one, allowing only that there was another of the same name, who was archbishop of York. It is the metropolitan, the grammarian, and abbot of St. Alban's, whose Life Mr. Mores has written.

We have given Mr. Wise's outline of this Life, and think it unnecessary to trace the inconsiderable variations of Mr. Mores. We shall add a specimen, however, of his manner, by transcribing his arguments on one disputed point:

‘Quod si dicat aliquis ex parte Eboracensis Archiepiscopi Ælfricum homiliarum interpretem alium fuisse ab Ælfrico episcopo Vilodunensi (Wiltoun), utpote qui in dictarum homiliarum præfationibus se monachum aperte indigitet, huic respondeo vocem munuc neutiquam Ælfrici gradum* in ecclesia denotare, sed ordinem tantummodo ex quo fuit ecclesiasticum designare: nec alia de causa ab Ælfrico usurpatam fuisse quam ut se monachum à clericorum conjugatorum grege determinaret, erga quos eodem prorsus fuit animo quo et Athelvuoldus præceptor ejus, magnus ille monachismi relictitor, vindex, pater. Rem extra omnem dubitationis aleam ponit homiliarum primi voluminis proœmium: ibi enim Ælfricus tam gradum suum

* Septem in ecclesia constitutos esse gradus his verbis nos docet Ælfricus: Seopon hadaþ rindon ȝeſette on cýpican. on 17 hortianuþ. oþen 17 leccor. ȝuþða exoficra. ȝeoþða Acolitur. ȝætta Subdiaconur. 1xta Diaconur. ȝeoþða Pnerbiter. Can. 10. Niþan had ȝeſet on cýplicum ȝeapum butou ȝir ȝeoþen; 11 unuþ had 7 abbud had rindon oþne pýran. 7 ne pýndon ȝeſealde to ȝýrum ȝeſeale. Can. 18.

† *Monast. Ang.* vol. i. p. 8.

‡ *Registr. Joh. Pech. Archiep. Cant. passim.*

quam ordinem designare volens se munus ꝛ Mæro-pneoste virum monastici ordinis & presbyterum, seu satis opinor probe monastici ordinis presbyterum appellat. De Episcopo legimus cognomine quod Episcopus, Monachus et Abbas obiit ꝛ. Et exempla istiusmodi permulta adduci possunt Consimilem sane distinctionem annos fere post trecentos haud minus assidue fortin reperiemus; diebus nimirum Pecchami successoris Ælfrici in sede Cantuariensi, quo Archiepiscopalem tenente cathedram tanta inter fratres et monachos enitueret jurgia quanta inter monachos & canonicos sæculares temporibus Ælfrici. E prædicatoribus erat Pecchamus, et præ suo erga fratres amore erga monachos odio ordinis sui nomen retinuit; nec posteaquam archiepiscopalem conscendisset thronum aliter quam *frater Johannes* appellari voluit: in omnibus quas scripsit literis, in omnibus commissionibus et instrumentis publicis hujusmodi titulis exorsus, *Frater Johannes Cantuariensis ecclesiæ sacerdos aut minister humilis. Frater Johannes permissione divina Cantuariensis Archiepiscopus. Frere Johan par la Suffraunee deu prestre de Cantebir. primat de tut Engleterre, &c.*

Mr. Mores next gives some account of Ælfric Bata, whom we have already mentioned, as the archbishop of York; of Ælfric the friend of Dunstan, abböt of Meldunum, and some others of the same name, sufficiently distinguished from the metropolitan. The Appendix contains some extracts from Saxon deeds, Saxon charters, and similar authorities.

We cannot, on the whole, commend the style of this commentary; the language is distorted into obscurity; it is harsh, inelegant, and unpleasing. The stores of antiquarian literature, are, however, copious and valuable: the true antiquary will not, perhaps, regret the labour of unravelling the author's meaning, or forget, that he owes this rich repast to the diligence of Dr. Thorkelin.

Observations chiefly relative to Picturesque Beauty, made in the Year 1776, on several Parts of Great Britain; particularly the High-lands of Scotland. By W. Gilpin, A. M. Two Volumes. 8vo. 1l. 16s. in Boards. Blamire.

WE followed Mr. Gilpin in his enchanting tour on the banks of the Wye, in our LVIIth volume p. 48: we accompanied him in vol. LXIV. p. 93. to the lakes of Westmorland and Cumberland; and we now again with pleasure join our former companion in a more extended excursion through the Highlands. In the articles referred to, we have explained Mr. Gilpin's design, praised the acuteness and the taste which dictated his remarks, and pointed out the peculiar effect of these washed etchings, which are added to illustrate the

the general effect. The art of washing or of tinting plates seems to be greatly improved: in some copies which we have seen of these Observations, they have a clearness and a brilliancy which add greatly to their beauty and their effects: in a new edition of his first Tour to the Wye, we think they are still more happily executed. The distances are also better preserved, though the artist has sometimes failed in conveying the full effect of different distances; so that we were, in one or two instances, incapable of recognising a scene which we were well acquainted with. We may, undoubtedly, expect various improvements in these pleasing ornaments: but we hear with regret, that extraordinary success is often accidental.

Mr. Gilpin goes first through Yorkshire to Cumberland, and into Scotland by Longtown and Hawick; from whence he proceeds to Edinburgh, Perth, Stirling, Loch Leven, Loch Tay, Loch Fyne, Loch Lomond, and returns through Lancashire. His observations are, as usual, pleasing, interesting, and judicious; enlivened, we think, by more incidental matter than in his former volumes, which is suggested by the history and events of the country through which he passes. But his narratives are well managed; they seldom detain the reader long, and they are usually apposite and entertaining. We have formerly been unwilling to relate the events of these tours, or to describe the objects which were observed in any but the author's words; from a consciousness that we could not succeed so well. We shall follow the same plan, and give our readers some idea of the entertainment they will receive from this work, by selecting passages of different kinds.

As an admirer of picturesque objects and prospects, his remarks on ruins are very valuable. It is a subject which has not been properly examined; and one in which the best surveyors have failed. We must transcribe only the general observations, as his particular criticism on what has been done at Roche abbey would appear tedious.

'But in a ruin the reigning ideas are solitude, neglect, and desolation. The environs of a house should partake of the elegance and grandeur of the mansion they adorn, because harmony and propriety require it. If there is force in this reason, it surely holds equally true, that a ruin should be left in a state of wildness and negligence. Harmony and propriety require one as much as the other.

'Of what improvement then is the scenery of a ruin capable?

'Of some no doubt. Though we should not wish to adorn it with polished nature—though the thorn lawn, the flowering shrub,

shrub, and the embellished walk, are alien ideas; yet many things offensive may be removed. Some part of the rubbish, or of the brushwood may be out of place, and hide what ought to be seen. The ground in many parts may be altered, but discretely altered. A path may wind; but not such grand walks as are here introduced, rather for parade than contemplation; and such certainly as the convent never knew; even in its highest state of prosperity. Trees also may be planted; and water may be introduced. But a sort of negligent air should run through the whole; and if art should always be concealed, it should here be totally hid. The precept conveyed in those beautiful lines, cannot be too religiously applied to scenes like these.

————— If art

E'er dares to tread, 'tis with unsandal'd foot,
Printless, as if the place were holy ground.

No sunk fence or nettled barrier should restrain the flock. Let them browse within the very precincts of the ruin. It is a habitation forsaken of men, and resumed by nature; and though nature do not require a slovenly path to walk in, yet she always wishes for one with some degree of rudeness about it.

'If the mansion-house stand near the ruins you wish to adorn, the ruins themselves will then become only appendages. Neatness in part must be introduced. Yet still, even in this case, one should wish to have the ruins in a sequestered place, less adorned than the environs of a mansion ought to be.'

We must now pass hastily on, and shall stop first at Loch Leven.

'I shall never forget the sweet composure of an evening walk along the margin of the lake; shrouded on the right by an irregular screen of Mr. Bruce's pines, and open to the water on the left. A soothing stillness ran through the scene. It was one of those mild, soft evenings, when not a breath disturbs the air. About sun-set, a light grey mist, arising from the lake, began to spread over the landscape. Creeping first along the surface of the water, it rose by degrees up the hills; blending both together in that pleasing ambiguity, through which we can but just distinguish the limits of each. I do not call this the most beautiful mode of vision; but it certainly exhibits in great perfection a graduating tint; which is among the most pleasing sources of beauty. The mist becoming thinner as it ascended the mountain, the ground of course appeared gradually stronger as it emerged from it.

'Our view was still improved by picturesque figures upon the foreground. Some fishermen were dragging a net to the shore, which had been carried into the lake by a boat. We waited till the contents of the net were discharged, among which were some very fine trout. We saw them again at supper, and found afterwards that this species of fish, which is more red than salmon,

salmon, is peculiar to this lake; and though a critic in eating would travel many miles to taste this delicate food in perfection, we were informed it sold at the price of three farthings a pound.

‘The castle, which appeared floating on the lake, was a happy circumstance in the scene, pointing the view from every part. It was important in itself, and still more so by an association of ideas, through its connection with that unfortunate princess, Mary queen of Scots, whose beauty and guilt have united pity and detestation through every part of her history. In this castle she was confined by the confederate lords, after the murder of the king, and her marriage with Bothwell.’

Our travellers proceed to the Tay, and having viewed that side of the river where the house is placed, they crossed it again to see the hermitage, a name given to some improvements made on the bank. These our author thinks are too artificial to combine with the other features of the spot.

‘But having passed through this elaborate parterre, half inclined to turn back at every step, we came unexpectedly to an astonishing scene.’

‘The two rocky cheeks of the river almost uniting compress the stream into a very narrow compass; and the channel, which descends abruptly, taking also a sudden turn, the water suffers more than common violence from the double resistance it receives from compression and obliquity. Its efforts to disengage itself, have, in a course of ages, undermined, disjointed, and fractured the rock in a thousand different forms; and have filled the whole channel of the descent with fragments of uncommon magnitude, which are the more easily established, one upon the broken edges of another, as the fall is rather inclined than perpendicular. Down this abrupt channel the whole stream in foaming violence forcing its way through the peculiar and happy situation of the fragments which oppose its course, forms one of the grandest and most beautiful cascades we had ever seen. At the bottom it has worn an abyss, in which the wheeling waters suffer a new agitation, though of a different kind.’

‘This whole scene and its accompaniments are not only grand, but picturesquely beautiful in the highest degree. The composition is perfect; but yet the parts are so intricate, so various, and so complicated, that I never found any piece of nature less obvious to imitation. It would cost the readiest pencil a summer day to bring off a good resemblance. My poor tool was so totally disheartened, that I could not bring it even to make an attempt. The broad features of a mountain, the shape of a country, or the line of a lake, are matters of easy execution. A trifling error escapes notice. But these high finished pieces of nature’s more complicated workmanship, in which the beauty, in a great degree, consists in the finishing; and in which every touch is expressive, especially the spirit,

activity, clearness, and variety of agitated water, are among the most difficult efforts of the pencil. When the cascade falls in a pure, unbroken sheet, it is an object of less beauty indeed, but of much easier imitation.'

From Blair to Tay-mouth, our travellers chose the road to the north, by Dona Cardoc, where the various mountains draw from our author a very singular opinion.

'And here I cannot help disclosing what appears to me a truth, though so bold a one, that it ought only perhaps to be opened to the initiated. In the exhibition of distant mountains on paper or canvas, unless you make them exceed their real or proportional size, they have no effect. It is inconceivable how objects lessen by distance. Examine any distance, closed by mountains, in a camera, and you will easily see what a poor diminutive appearance the mountains make. By the power of perspective they are lessened to nothing. Should you represent them in your landscape in so diminutive a form, all dignity and grandeur of idea would be lost. The case is, a scrap of canvas compared with the vastness of nature's scale, misleads the eye; and if the exact proportion of the mountain be observed, it is so trifling, that we cannot easily persuade ourselves it is the representative of so vast and enormous a mass.'

'Even in nature the eye is apt to make frequent mistakes; and often misjudges with regard both to bulk and distance, notwithstanding it is able to form comparisons from the various objects that appear in the extent of landscape around, which may assist the judgment. But in painting the eye has not this assistance; it has only the objects of a very circumscribed spot to compare by, and cannot, therefore, deduce the real size of the mountain for want of objects of comparison. We must, therefore, enlarge the scale a little beyond nature, to make nature look like herself. If, indeed, the picture and nature should be brought together, the deception will be apparent: otherwise the deception appears the reality.'

The height of mountains is indeed often mistaken in nature, and even in good prints; their diminutive appearance makes the pompous and sublime descriptions of the traveller ridiculous, or leads us to doubt of the accuracy of the drawer or the narrator. Mr. Gilpin has, we believe, pointed out the origin of this mistake, to which must be added often the effects of surrounding objects in nature, or a defect of proportion in the picture. We remember, in a print of a very high mountain in Scotland, a man is represented as hanging by a cord from the summit, and the man is very nearly one-third of the height of the mountain.—From the description of Loch Tay we shall select only an account of one very beautiful view:

'The view of the lake from the rising grounds near the church
is

is capital. On the right a lofty mountain falls into the water, and forms a grand promontory. Its lines at the base are finely broken by a wooded island. Another promontory projects from the opposite shore, and both together form the water into a spacious bay. Between the two promontories the distant mountains recede in perspective; and the lake goes off in the form of another bay. We seldom meet with a grander piece of lake-scenery.'

At Loch Lomond we expected that our author's enthusiasm would have carried him into bold and animated descriptions; but the account is broken into fragments, and we suspect that he was not always highly pleased. We shall extract another passage.

'At Luss we got into a boat and rowed to the middle of the lake, where we lay upon our oars to take a view of the scenery around us.

'To the north we looked far up the narrow channel of the lake, which we had just seen from the shore. We were now more in the centre of the view; but the scene was now shifted: it was more a vista. The mountains shelved beautifully into the water on both sides, and the bottom of the lake was occupied by Ben-vorlie, which filled its station with great distinction. On the right, Ben-lomond, the second hill in Scotland, raised its respectable head: while the waters at their base were dark, like a black transparent mirror. But in this point of view, the form of Ben-lomond was rather injured by the regularity of its line, which consists of three stages of ascent. In general, however, this mountain appears finely sloped, and its surface beautifully broken.

'Ben-lomond measures in height between three and four thousand feet from the surface of the lake, extending its skirts far and wide into the country. Its lofty sides are subject to various climates; and maintain various inhabitants. The ptarmigan and other heath-fowls frequent its upper regions: its lower are sought as a favourite haunt by the roe-buck: while the many irriguous vallies and sheltered pastures at its base tempt the peasants of the country to settle among them.'

The general remarks on the scenery in Scotland near the end of the work, are peculiarly just and appropriated. Their length only prevents us from transcribing them: to abridge them would be impolitic, and probably useless. We must not, however, leave these volumes without expressing our gratitude for the great entertainment we have received, and recommending the perusal to observers of refined taste, and to travellers, who would learn to discriminate in their observations, or to describe what they have seen with distinctness and propriety.

A View of the Reign of Frederick II. of Prussia; with a Parallel between that Prince and Philip II. of Macedon. By John Gillies, LL. D. F. R. S. and S. A. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Cadell.

IF we estimate the importance of any subject by its influence on a kingdom, the changes it produces on the system of empires, or in the views of a continent greater in extent than that which the Romans governed, when they boasted of the empire of the world, it will not be surprising that Frederick has attained a great share of our attention, that we have repeatedly surveyed the events of his life, and endeavoured so often to catch the features of the man, distinct from those of the monarch. He was a phænomenon in the political world; a meteor, whose appearance was accompanied with war and devastation, but which at last diffused peace and comfort over dominions which were once so much harrassed and so nearly ruined. It may be added too, that Frederick was an author; and that, in our humble sphere, we must follow those who lead the way, and be satellites to superior planets.

Dr. Gillies, who again brings us back to Frederick, has given an accurate and comprehensive view of the more active scenes of the king's life, from his own accounts, and frequently in his own words. To those who wish for information within a short compass, enforced by energetic description and animated language, though not quite free from the affectation which we reprehended in the History of Greece*, or occasionally from Scotticisms† and Gallicisms, will read with pleasure the work before us. Where Frederick's Posthumous Works did not assist, our author has stepped hastily on, except in the latter part, where baron Hertzberg's Discourses have supplied what the monarch had not told. Indeed, to fulfil his plan, which was only a 'View of the Reign of the King of Prussia,' it was not necessary to notice any part of his life, previous to his accession.

Though we may praise Dr. Gillies' work as a correct and judicious abridgment of what Frederick has done; yet from the title we should have expected something more than flattering encomiums, and indiscriminating praise. Frederick often blames himself, and other observers have more frequently blamed him. While every censurer may not have reason for his opinions, some parts of his conduct were undoubtedly erroneous: one of these errors was the employment of the French financiers; but this

* Crit. Rev. Vol. LXI. pages 169 and 300.
break the ice, p. 74.

† He caused
proceeding,

proceeding, with other exceptionable ones, is cordially commended. Even the partition of Poland, a measure unjustifiable in every view, is passed over as a political design; and Dr. Gillies is more eager to point out the advantages than to censure the iniquity of the attempt. But, as we have formerly given a short abstract of the Memoirs of Frederick, from the History of his own Period, we shall rather attend to that part which is more certainly original: we mean the Parallel between Frederick and Philip of Macedon.

Each was undoubtedly confined to a narrow spot environed with powerful neighbours, obliged to trust to his own exertions, for defence or conquest: each attempted conquests, and succeeded; for each was original, enterprising, and inventive; each was brave, able, and polite. Philip excelled in eloquence; Frederick in dexterous negotiation: Philip, as well as Frederick, knew how to conceal his measures and designs till the storm was ready to burst. The Macedonian and the German were alike favoured by circumstances, by the corruption, the effeminacy, and the divisions of the neighbouring states against whom their forces were directed; and were alike able to employ, what we have called the most powerful despotism, the influence of strong minds over weak ones. Yet here perhaps the parallel ends. Philip was artful and unprincipled, perfidious and unjust. Frederick kept every engagement which he entered into scrupulously: his word was the securest bond, which he was never known to violate. His attempt on Silesia had the appearance, we think more than the appearance, of justice: his division of Poland we have styled, and it certainly was, unjustifiable. The politician may pretend, that while this devoted kingdom was *protected* by one power, and *preyed* on by another, it could call nothing its own; for, in modern politics, a protector and a conqueror differ but in terms. This apology cannot, however, satisfy the moralist, who judges by a stricter code than that which the politician employs.

We have given the outline of the Parallel, nearly according to the sentiments of Dr. Gillies, who does not point out the contrast in a moral view. Perhaps he considered Frederick's unprovoked attacks on Austria, and his insidious conduct respecting Poland, as sufficient compensations for all the injustice, all the perfidy of Philip. We must, however, fully agree with Dr. Gillies in the following passage:

'The parallel here drawn is remarkable, not only for the exactness of its correspondence, but for the greatness of its extent. Between great generals and great statesmen, it is easy to find a resemblance; and the ambition of one prince is often the ambition of another.

another. But to compare Philip and Frederick, is to delineate two men, whose individual characters would supply copious materials for a large volume of illustrious lives. Directing the minute industry of his peasants, and directing the operations of the siege of Schweidnitz, refusing the system of nature, and repelling marschal Daun, composing the preface to the *Henriade*, and settling the peace of Germany;—Frederick engaged in these and many other seemingly incompatible occupations, appears rather a creature of fancy than a real existence, not one man, but an epitome of human industry. By the confession of Demosthenes, who surely wished not to exalt the merit of Philip, it required the gracefulness of Aristodemus, the wit of Philocrates, and, as he silently insinuates, his own eloquence, to form a parallel to the Macedonian prince. Yet how many accomplishments of that prince still remained untold, to which none of those celebrated Athenians could lay claim? His invincible fortitude, his unremitting vigilance, his unalterable presence of mind amidst the greatest difficulties and dangers; in one word, that great and complex art, the art likewise of Frederick, of converting a barbarous and despised district into a powerful and respected kingdom. The parallel between the ancient and modern monarch is the more deserving therefore of attention, on account of the unexampled variety of circumstances of which it consists; and this variety again, considered abstractedly, forms itself the most interesting link in the whole chain of comparison.*

We shall transcribe but one other paragraph :

* Eager to promote the advancement of those arts which embellish social life and secure the immortal renown of princes by whom they are honoured, both Philip and Frederick discovered, perhaps with too little respect for the public opinion, an ineffable disdain for those doubtful yet presumptuous sciences, which often change their principles, but never vary their object; which continually alter in form, but never improve in substance; and which the artifices of their professors, and the stupidity of the million, perpetuate from one age to another, always flattering hope, and always disappointing expectation. The quackery of physic, the chicane of law, the gro's delusions of popular superstition, were continual themes of ridicule with the Prussian monarch, who, though he appeared as the champion of the protestant cause against the bigotry of the house of Austria, as Philip had been appointed the minister of Apollo's vengeance against the impious Phocians, yet despised as much as did the Macedonian prince, the coarse engines with which he condescended to operate on vulgar credulity. Of his reign throughout, it was the invariable aim to simplify the principles, and abridge the proceedings, of law; and notwithstanding the perverseness of his education, and the contagious company of French infidels, he still admired the modest yet sublime

sublime genius of primitive Christianity, and laboured to diminish the influence of priestcraft, its worst enemy.'

We must conclude with again recommending Dr. Gillies' work. His plan is clear, his descriptions perspicuous, and his reflections judicious. This volume is a pleasing manual, which will enable the readers to peruse the king's own works with pleasure, and to return to them with advantage.

The Aggrandisement and National Perfection of Great Britain; An humble Proposal, comprehending, under one simple and practicable Undertaking, without laying additional Burdens upon the Subject, the Means of paying off the Public Debt of Great Britain within the Space of Thirty Years. By George Edwards, Esq. M. D. 2 Vols. 4to. 1l. 5s. Debrett.

THE subject of this work is of a nature so arduous and complicated, that, had the author taken only a general view of the means which he proposes for the aggrandisement of Great Britain, he would have performed a great undertaking: but we find him descending into a copious detail of his extensive system, and indeed with such a minuteness as would far exceed the limits of a Review, to trace with any adequate precision. We must therefore confine ourselves to giving the outlines of his proposal; but not without acknowledging the extraordinary attention, and almost enthusiastic zeal, with which he has prosecuted the subject.

From the opinion which Dr. Edwards expresses of the deplorable state of the nation, we should imagine that he had formed his estimate about the close of the American war, when public affairs, undoubtedly, bore a very gloomy appearance. But, though that juncture may have afforded the first hint of his sentiments, he seems not to have retracted them at a later period, even while he acknowledges, as he does very explicitly, the salutary effects of several measures pursued by the present administration. Some readers may perhaps think, that the author has industriously represented the situation of Great Britain as highly unfavourable, with the view of rendering his own proposals more important and useful. The fact, however, seems to be, that he has, in some cases, been led into those sentiments by comparing the state of the nation with the standard of political and moral perfection, as existing in his own mind.

The first object of this author's proposals is the establishment of a general police, to be extended through the kingdom. The following extract will give our readers some idea

of his plan, in the delineation of which a great part of the work is employed.

I propose under the following divisions :

A. That in the first place a distribution of the kingdom, shall take place into districts of convenient dimensions, which we shall suppose in general to contain one hundred square miles, or to be, to speak in general terms, ten miles long, and ten broad : in order that each district of the kingdom, and thus, collectively the whole kingdom may be properly attended to, and directed under the management of a wise and adequate police ; may according to their different capacities be in every respect meliorated, cultivated and improved, rendered rich and prosperous, fertile and productive, and made to contribute according to their abilities and powers to augment the strength, natural resources, splendour, and honour of the kingdom ; and permit the revenue to be raised by more advantageous ways and means for the public, and less oppressive for private individuals ; and be the means of establishing and accomplishing a more moralized society, greater public happiness, and the national perfection ; so far as human abilities can operate, so far as created nature will receive and permit suitable exertions to be made for these purposes upon a solid basis.

B. That a proper person, whom I propose to call the district steward, shall with proper assistance act on behalf of each district, into which the kingdom may be distributed, in the manner, and for accomplishing the ends and purposes above mentioned under letter *A.* That as an agent he shall direct and manage his respective district, so as by the most effectual methods to serve and promote its interests and those of the public ; whether by executing such business as the determination of parliament has already or may hereafter enjoin the police to perform, whether by inducing the inhabitants of the police spontaneously to attend to what is their own advantage and to promote their own interests, or by making proper reports to the board of civilization soon to be explained of what is injurious or beneficial to the district or any part thereof, in which he is placed, and by this means giving useful information to persons of superior ability, power, and wisdom, in order that they may lay the contents of it before the parliament, if this be necessary. That he shall be appointed in a proper manner, so as not to affect the interests, rights, and privileges of either the crown or people ; as will be hereafter considered. That he shall be stationary in the center or the most interesting part of his district ; and that as business may require, he shall have sufficient assistance.

That a superior district steward so to be called, shall be appointed as a superintendant over such a number of districts and district stewards, as he can attend to, for the purpose of observing, that the latter discharge their duties in a strict manner,

attend properly to the interests of their several respective districts, and promote the general views of the proposed police.

'C. That the inhabitants in general of the district, who come within the rank or characters of gentlemen in any respect, being qualified by the possession of a certain property, and by other denominations hereafter to be considered; and whom I propose to be styled district check commissioners, shall be incorporated as a part of my police for the following purposes; to inspect the state, advantages, and defects of their respective districts; to promote, or assist in carrying into effect, all such measures as parliament may direct to be executed by the police; to observe in what manner the district steward executes the business entrusted to him, his demeanour, and behaviour; and how in general he discharges his duty, whether faithfully, adequately, and effectually, or contrariwise, to the trust reposed in him; and in a particular manner to inspect his attendances, entries, and accounts, so far as it may be proper and answer a good purpose: to prove a regular and unintermitted instigation and controul upon the steward, and all other officers and members of the police within the district, instigating them to discharge their respective duties in the most laudable manner, and being so certain a controul as to prevent them from neglecting or abusing them; to correspond and communicate with the board of civilization, hereafter to be explained by a regular channel of information, and transmit to it an account of whatever may serve the interests of the districts; and as so good a purpose must be on various occasions, answered by their having the inspection and controul over the accounts of the district stewards, by means of committees, and general meetings, to approve of and sign them before they are transmitted to the board, but to refuse where they observe objections, and report these to the board; and in fine, to be very strenuous in discharging this part of their duty, and taking proper measures in every respect to serve their particular district and their country.'

We have already intimated, that the extreme minuteness of the author's arrangements must necessarily preclude any observations; which, we trust, it will be evident, would be no less superfluous than uninteresting. Let us then follow him to the next object of his political speculation. This relates to the maintenance of the poor; concerning which, Mr. Edwards, very justly, condemns almost the whole of the present establishment. He proposes that this part of the national police should undergo a thorough reformation, according to a plan which he describes; and affirms, what we have no hesitation in believing to be well founded, that a million sterling might be annually saved to the nation by such a reform. This surplus, the author proposes, should be applied to the discharge of the public debt; for the more speedy liquidation
of

of which, he farther suggests, that government should take entirely under its own management all the public roads in the kingdom; whence likewise a great additional revenue would accrue to the nation.

As another collateral means of discharging the public debt, the author proposes, that the gross amount of the several duties collected under the excise and customs, should be transferred to the annual incomes of the different inhabitants of the kingdom, who should pay the amount of those duties, in proportion to their respective incomes. In a small state, where the income of the several inhabitants could be easily ascertained, this method of apportioning the contribution of the public expenditure, might be extremely practicable; but there is much reason to question, whether it would equally suit the situation of a great and commercial kingdom; and likewise whether the public revenue could ever be thus collected, amidst the numerous defalcations which may be supposed would annually happen in an extensive populous nation. The author, however, is, as usual, very minute with regard to the regulations for carrying into effect this expedient of political economy. For the same purpose of discharging the national debt, he farther proposes a scheme of issuing paper-money under the authority of parliament, and for selling certain possessions and properties belonging to the kingdom. Among the possessions specified is Gibraltar, for the sale of which, on various accounts, Mr. Edwards is a zealous advocate.

In the second volume, the author treats of advancing the civilization of the kingdom, and of bringing forwards the great mental powers and moral disposition of man, so as effectually to promote the public welfare. In prosecuting this subject, he has launched into an extensive field of speculation, where we find him successively engaged in the several sciences of metaphysics, physics, and pneumatics; delineating, likewise, the outlines of a code of ethics, and inculcating the practice of what he terms moral financiering. An extract from this part of the work will best illustrate his design; but, that we may not offend the reader's patience, we shall make it as short as possible:

‘First, That certain vicious actions shall subject the persons, who perpetrate them, to certain small fines, perhaps not less than the sum of five shillings, nor exceeding twenty shillings. The only vices I shall propose to subject to such marks of disgrace, are those of fraud, and violation of integrity, and those of indolence in persons who receive money for executing work, which however they neglect from mere idleness or villainy.

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For these vices I consider as of the most fatal tendency to the welfare of society; and they are the root and beginning of almost all other vices, and sap, as it were, the foundations of virtue and of morality in general. They are a great hindrance to national improvements of all kinds, and are very frequent, if not universal at the present time. Some infliction of disgrace, as is hereby proposed, is more particularly necessary in regard to those in the lower stations of life, who do not accomplish work they take by the piece, according to agreement, but finish it in a fraudulent, imperfect manner. For the great advantages, which individuals thus obtain, wherein they also generally escape punishment, are such strong temptations, that such practices are usual and customary through whole countries, and have corrupted their manners in a very extraordinary degree. Here let a bargain of work, as of dry walling, or of draining by the piece, and you very frequently will observe in a short time low cunning and rapacious villainy in all their perfection. There can be no peculiar or unjust hardship here in punishing the labourer, in the manner proposed, on account of his idleness: nay, it would do him a kindness, and would encrease and multiply the work of the country so as to be very beneficial to him. Even a people of such great sensibility of feeling as the Athenians submitted to a law which punished indolence with severity. Where India boasts its independency and national perfection in Missenpoor, where their provincial improvements are carried on with the greatest vigour and spirit, integrity is universal among the people; and to this must be in a great measure ascribed the splendour of their state, which may be cited as highly exemplary to Europe in general.

The author next treats of the proper regulations of the religious establishment of this country; of the means of redressing the law-practice of the kingdom; of a plan to secure the liberty and happiness of the people, by a proper mode of electing their members in parliament; with considerations on the improvement of agriculture. The last of these subjects is prosecuted at great length, under the form of aphorisms, in which are comprehended many practical and useful observations.

On the whole, the author of this work discovers much laudable industry, in detailing such plans of public improvement as he thinks would tend to the aggrandisement of the nation. Some of them, we are of opinion, might be adopted with great advantage; though, of others, the utility is questionable; and in a few, we perceive the air of romantic institutions, rendered yet more visionary by the rhapsodical declamation which occurs too frequently in the work.

Extra-

Extra-Official State Papers. Addressed to the Right Hon. Lord Rawdon, and the other Members of the Two Houses of Parliament, associated for the Preservation of the Constitution and promoting the Prosperity of the British Empire. By a late Under-Secretary of State. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Debrett.

THE editor of these Papers is Mr. Knox, late under-secretary to lord George Germain, and other principal secretaries in the American department. The design of the publication originally was, to furnish lord Rawdon, at a time when that nobleman had a prospect of coming into office, with a historical account of the several extra-official transactions in which Mr. Knox had been engaged, respecting this country, Ireland, and America; that his lordship might be made acquainted with the plans which had been formed by preceding ministers, might know how far they had been executed, and what remained for future deliberation. On account of the situation of public affairs at the time, however, the editor has reserved to some future occasion, not only the history of what had passed with regard to the British colonies in America, and the United States, but what considerations he had to propose concerning them; confining himself at present to the religious establishments in the remaining British colonies on the western continent, and the correspondence between Great Britain, Ireland, and America. The Papers, in general, contain much official information on the different subjects, intermix'd, occasionally, with a narrative of circumstances, which the editor will excuse us if we should deem a little *extra-official*. As an example of this kind, we have selected the following, for the amusement of our readers:

‘ His lordship (the earl of Shelburne) informed me that the American Department and the Board of Trade were to be suppressed, and all the business transferred to the Southern Department as formerly; that it was his intention to make a critical survey of the three offices, and retain those of the best abilities in each, and make a complete and perfect establishment out of the three; but that the supernumeraries who had behaved well should be amply recompensed for the loss of their offices. I begged his lordship would be so good as to leave me out in his survey, as it was my wish to retire; he replied quickly, sure I would not think of leaving the office at such a time, and in such a state—I said, by no means; I had promised to the king that I would give his lordship every information he desired, and would remain as long as he thought my attendance necessary; but that I must desire his lordship would not think of employing me in any *new or confidential matter*. He smiled, and asked me *what* were my reasons for that?—I had two, but I chose to give

give his lordship only one, which was, that his cabinet was a very numerous one, and some of the members had never been accustomed to secrets of state, and that in my long acquaintance with ministers, I had ever found a state secret very burthensome to a new cabinet counsellor, and that, either through vanity or imprudence, it was probable their consultations would get abroad, and it was not unlikely that I should be charged with having divulged them. He laughed heartily, and went away saying, he dared to say every thing would be very safe with me. My stipulation was, I believe, unnecessary; for his lordship had not, I imagine, any intention of confiding his secrets to me; but as I *had made the stipulation*, I considered myself at liberty to deny any charge of being in *his confidence*, which was the thing I aimed at; for, after possessing the fullest confidence of an earl of Hillsborough, an earl of Dartmouth, and a lord George Germain, I could not brook the *suspicion* of being the repository or adviser of the state artifices of the earl of Shelburne.

After the arrival of that very intelligent, attentive, and obliging gentleman, Mr. Nepean, my attendance at Shelburne House was no longer necessary, and I took the first opportunity to request his lordship to dispense with it, and I believe he was as well pleased to get rid of me, as I was to be gone, and for a similar reason; for I was daily subject to the mortification of seeing persons pass through the room where I was kept in waiting, some of whom, if my advice had been taken by the late administration, or I had been at liberty to have followed my own, should have come into my presence upon a very different footing. One circumstance that happened, and as it was followed by another the most highly gratifying to me, and as both were public, I will mention. The American merchants had one day come up to wait upon his lordship with a state of their situation with the revolted colonies, and to request his attention to their interests in any negotiation he might enter into. On their return from their conference, they passed through the room in which I was attending as usual, amusing myself with my own thoughts. and as I was well known to them all, they stopped to speak to me, and told me, with an air of ridicule, that they had just learned how very ill I had done my business, for they had been told that every thing in the American Office was in such confusion, that it was impossible for his lordship, as yet, to possess himself of any information, or to do any business. The next Sunday I went to pay my duty to the queen, and being stopped at the entrance into the upper drawing-room by the crowd, I could get no farther than the passage, where the earl of Shelburne was forced against me, and I, with much difficulty, got room for his lordship to come before me, in which situation we were, with my chin over his lordship's shoulder, when his majesty came up to him, and after speaking to him about the country, perceiving me, with his usual great

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goodness and condescension to me, he raised his voice, and said to his lordship, with a look of benignity to me, "You found the American Office in pretty good order, I believe." "Oh, yes, sir," replied the earl, "*in the most perfect order:*" to which I added, as his majesty looked as if he intended I should join in the conversation, and I was happy in the opportunity of doing justice to the merit of two worthy friends, "That Mr. Pownall had regulated the office so extremely well at its first establishment, that nothing more was necessary than to keep every thing in the same order; and that Mr. Pollock, who had the care of the papers, and of making up the dispatches, was so extremely attentive and diligent, that, in the whole of the twelve years I had been under-secretary, I never knew him leave out a single inclosure, but in one instance:" upon which, his majesty, turning to lord Shelburne, said, "*That was very diligent and careful indeed, to make only one mistake in twelve years.*" "Yes, sir," said his lordship, "but that diligence and attention which is so useful to others, is generally prejudicial to the persons themselves; and Mr. Pollock has suffered greatly in his health." "Why," replied the king, "that was *his case*," looking most graciously towards me, "for I remember him in a very bad state of health; but he now seems quite well." "Yes, sir," rejoined I; "and Mr. Pollock is also very much recovered, and perfectly capable of doing the business of the office." I need not add, that Mr. Pollock was not put upon the suppressed list.

These Papers afford strong evidence of Mr. Knox's extensive knowledge, respecting commercial as well as political affairs, and we are sorry to find, that his long and faithful attention to the public service seems not to have met with the liberal retribution which it merited.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Acta Academiae Cæs. Reg. Josephinæ Medicæ Chirurgicæ Vindobonensis. Tom. I. 4to. Vind.

WHEN we formerly gave a general account of the contents of this volume, we promised to resume it; and though a long interval has elapsed, it has not escaped our recollection. We are almost ashamed to repeat the hackneyed excuse, that we must follow the popular opinions without being always able to direct them, and give that room to temporary subjects which we had designed for the completion of our former engagements.—But we can now no longer delay the performance of our promise.

Whatever may be the general opinion of the emperor's political attempts, he must, in many respects, be considered as a benevolent and

and patriotic monarch. The institution of this academy is a wise and salutary measure; and the publication of this volume is a proof that he watches over the plan which he first encouraged. The embellishments of a new work are of some importance. The front piece is not a mannerly performance, though drawn with spirit and correctness. A martial figure, perhaps the German empire, points out the bust of Joseph on a pedestal, situated seemingly within the walls of the hospital, with this inscription: 'Josephus II. Augustus hic primus.' In the title is a vignette of the hospital, which appears to be an extensive and magnificent building.

The preface contains some just remarks on the utility of observation, and the society expresses a very proper resolution of excluding those very extraordinary facts which have sometimes taxed the credulity of physicians, and disgraced a few of the German collections. The introduction is written with great eagerness and little judgment. The author treats of the antiquity, the utility, the nobility, and the pleasantness of surgical practice. It will be enough to observe, that under the first head he considers Tubal Cain as having made machines for reducing dislocated limbs. Under the second, he compares the practice of medicine to that of surgery, and prefers the latter for several reasons: one is so singular as to deserve recording. Hippocrates alone could, he observes, bring medicine to perfection, for what has since his time been added to it? But surgery requires the combined efforts of many men of genius; and new discoveries are continually supplied. That surgery is a noble art, he proves from the surgical skill which many kings and noblemen have possessed. Our readers, will, however, be surprised to hear that Jesus Christ, who described 'the Samaritan as pouring oil and wine into the wounds of the man who fell among thieves,' and made a paste with clay to anoint the eyes of the blind man, is brought into the list of surgeons. The author should have spoken also of the divinity of surgery. In the second part, where he describes the deplorable state of the science in Germany, and praises the munificence of the emperor in erecting the school, he seems to rest on a more secure foundation. A list of the members, who are yet but few, is subjoined.

The first essay by the president, à Brambilla, we think a very good one: it is on the fungus of the joints. Our readers will understand it better when we remark that it is the disease which we style a white swelling, when in the knee. M. Alexander Joannes à Brambilla does not distinguish the complaint with great accuracy, but describes under this title, all cold tumors of the joints. Many of these are well described, and even the white swelling is pretty clearly pointed out. His plan of cure by stimulants, and internally by tonics, is judicious, for these diseases are connected with a weak and relaxed habit. But he has omitted the only remedy which we have ever found effectual in the exquisite state of the true white swelling, viz. repeated blister.

blistering. It is a severe remedy and not always successful; but it is the only one which is often of use, and is only so when the cavity of the joint is not locally diseased. M. à Brambilla has pointed out the cause with precision, and explained its influence. He attributes it to a lymphatic deposition: in what we have styled the 'true' white swelling, this deposition appears to be in the ligament, and it is known by the crackling felt under the hand when the joint is bent. Our author alludes to both these facts; but we think he has not pointed them out very clearly, or discriminated them with great accuracy. We have never seen, however, an essay on this subject equally full or more valuable.

The second is an useful dissertation by M. Plenck, on the tetanus, which is caused by, or which follows wounds. The observations of this author, and the cases related, strongly confirm Dr. Rust's opinion, respecting the cause and the cure of the tetanus. Our author applies warm stimulant dressings, and gives bark in large quantities internally. To the bark he attributes the chief influence; but opium, in his opinion, seems to add to its efficacy. In one or two cases mercury appeared to be very useful, but unfortunately the disease seems not to have yielded in any instance to medicine, till after the fourth day. Of twelve cases under M. Plenck's own inspection, only three were cured.

M. Ant. à Brambilla, the brother of the president, next describes the venous aneurism, or that aneurism which arises from wounding the artery through the vein, when the arterial blood immediately passes through the lower venatorifice. The English surgeons are well acquainted with this disease, from the writings of Dr. Hunter in the Medical Observations and Enquiries; but they will learn from this essay, what was known concerning it before the time of Hunter. M. à Brambilla cures it by a pressure accurately fitted to the corresponding wounds of the artery and vein.

M. Goepfert's Essay on the paresis is a very elaborate one. After a great display of erudition to ascertain the meaning of different terms, he distinguishes paresis to be a lesser kind of paralysis, frequently attended with pain, arising generally from an evident, often an external cause: at least to a disease of this kind he confines his remarks; and, after discussing some physiological questions, in which we find no great novelty or peculiar ingenuity, it is farther limited, by the slow gradual manner in which it comes on and increases, as well as by the little diminution of sensibility. The various causes, the prognosis, and the cure are next detailed. Our author does not deny the efficacy of stimulants, but thinks that the cause should be known, and the remedies chiefly directed to it: in this way emollients and aperients are often more successful than the most active stimulants. When the nerve is divided the paralysis is complete, unless the nervous energy be conveyed through some small branches which have escaped the violence. The experi-

ments of Fontana and others, respecting the union of nerves, our author properly observes are not confirmed by real practice. When from blows, concussions, &c. a paretis is produced, M. Goepfert gives many very judicious remarks on the remedies, and the parts to which they should be applied. These remarks are confirmed by different cases, where we find much rational, judicious, and successful practice. Blisters, however, seem to be undeservedly neglected. Our author then explains the atrophy which succeeds paralysis, and refers it very properly to the deficiency of irritability in the arteries, when deprived of the nervous power; but finds the subject too intricate and too difficult to be followed minutely.

The president, in the following dissertation, treats of the choleric from the poison of lead, and gives an instructive history of authors who have written on the subject. He treats of that disease which is attended with convulsions, and terminates in palsy; but he considers only that species of it which is owing to this destructive metal, for we have formerly had occasion to observe that, though a frequent, it is not the only cause. We are sorry to remark, that in many of his cases the colic arises from cosmetics; and, from numerous instances of a similar kind, we fear the present fashionable cosmetics are of a saturnine nature. His practice is very judicious. He gives oil of almonds, with laudanum pretty freely; and when the spasms are a little quieted he has recourse to purgatives.

The next essay is by M. Prochaska, entitled, '*Observationes de Vasis Seminalibus, eorum Valvulis, & via nova Semen Virile in Sanguinem admittente.*' The author gives the history of the discoveries of Graaf, Monro, Albinus, Haller, and the present Monro. He seems to think that there are valves in the vessels called the rete Halleri, by their appearing varicose after injection. This he supposes to be the reason why injections so seldom succeed; for, in other parts where there are usually valves, on some occasions they are not found; and, if this is the case in the testis, it will account for the injections frequently failing. The use of the valves is the same as in the veins. The new passage is that which Meckel has pointed out. If there are lymphatics in the testis, a circumstance of which there is no doubt, they seem from Meckel's and our author's experiments soon to terminate in the veins of that part.

M. Ant. à Brambrilla gives a case of spasmus cynicus following an accidental wound of the portio dura of the acoustic nerve, which comes through the base of the lower jaw, and is scattered on the neck. It happened in laying open a sinus, formed by an abscess on the neck, and was cured by an anodyne liniment. We once saw a similar instance pass off without any remedy.

It is with great pleasure that we perceive this respectable society design to give a general and scientific account of monsters, from the specimens preserved in their collection. They truly

observe, that these anomalous forms will often assist surgeons to solve the difficulties arising from their presentation, and in some respects, correct the judgments they may form in intricate cases of forensic medicine. In the introduction, one instance occurs of a hare-lip being cured where the palate was divided. The bones were brought together by a ligature, and united before the fissure of the lip was conglutinated. Another very singular fact occurs also in this paper. A child was born only with one leg: the other appeared as if it was amputated below the knee, except that a little fungous excrescence appeared at the extremity of the mutilated limb. This fungus, however, soon increased, and one or two ossified points appeared in it, as if nature had made an extraordinary effort to complete her work. The monster, which is delineated in this paper, was probably so from the beginning of its existence; but from the improper treatment of the midwife, which occasioned a prolapsus of the vagina, the labour pain went off and never returned. The fœtus remained fourteen years in the womb, and the body of the uterus, for the waters were discharged, concreted around it. The catamenia never again appeared; the ovaria and Fallopian tubes shrivelled and disappeared. The fœtus was, in many parts, ossified; and these ossifications must have arisen from a kind of crystallization, since the circulation no longer existed, and even the placenta had disappeared. There are the outlines of one of the most singular facts that we remember ever to have heard of, and which might afford room for a volume of disquisitions: unfortunately we have not room for a line.

M. J. Hunczowski gives some instances of the utility of the decoction of the dried shells of the walnut in healing ulcers. We do not give the fullest credit to his theory of healing ulcers, but we cannot reject his facts, particularly when he observes that, from the use of this decoction externally, the healing process begins in the middle. He gives the medicine too, occasionally, internally, and joins the rob of the shells with half its quantity of powder of bark. He recommends it in moist herpetic ulcers, arising from acrimony in the skin, where there is no inflammation, in broad flaccid ulcers, and in all simple ones which are not deep.

The dissertation which follows on some instances of preternatural structure discovered in the heart and larger vessels, is very important. It is introduced with some true, and some valuable observations. Among the latter we may mention the remark of Zimmerman, that when anomalous symptoms occur in any case, we should direct our attention to some latent uncommon cause, which, from the collection of dissections, may be detected, or at least explained. The commonest or most simple observations, Morgagni remarks, will sometimes explain a concurrence of uncommon symptoms; and, when the appearances are anomalous, when the best concerted plan of cure fails, and medical history affords no elucidation, it will be necessary

cessary to mark the symptoms with a discriminating eye, to record them with exactness, and, at last, to have recourse to the dissection of the patient after death. In these histories, the facts appear to be related with candour, without any abstract reasoning; and the previous symptoms, where they were connected with the appearances, seem to be faithfully detailed.

The first history is a description of a double vena cava ascendens, and a preternatural dilatation of the auricle. It is almost a solitary instance in the human body, though natural in the mole. The man was fifty-one years old, had had no particular complaints, except nervous ones, and died seemingly of an obstructed liver and jaundice, to which an hemiplegia was at last added. In the right hypochondrium was an elastic, circumscribed humour, indolent, and by a continual pressure capable of being reduced. It was the preternatural branch passing over the concave part of the liver.

The second is a history of a preternatural constitution and situation of the viscera of the thorax, as well as of a peculiar structure of the cardiac vessels. The man was more than twenty-six years old; but, in his youth, had fallen from a tree, and had spit blood. He could not lie on the right side, though it was not known whether this difficulty existed previous to the accident. He attributed it to his fall. He had agues, which were common in the place where he lived, and complaints of the liver in consequence of his agues, from which his death seemed to proceed. There was a pulsation in the right side, which was attributed to an aneurism; but, after death, the whole of the left side was found filled with a whitish, gelatinous, inodorous liquid. There were no lungs, bronchiae, or pulmonary vessels: there were no remains of either; but the lungs, on the right side, were found, and there the heart was perpendicularly situated, with its point downwards. The vessels of the heart were adapted to this situation, and there was no vestige of any branching of the pulmonary artery. Two instances of the foramen ovale, found open in adults, follow: in the beaver also the foramen ovale was found open in the same way. Buffon asserts that this animal cannot dive.

The next case affords an instance of a piece of bone, resembling a shell, being formed in the apex of the heart. It filled the tops of both ventricles, and was of the thickness of the blade of a knife. The man complained of head-achs only, and died suddenly.

M. Boecking has furnished a Practical Dissertation on the Obstinacy of Ulcers, from a Combination of Itch with the Venereal Lues. He speaks of itch repelled, and lurking in the blood, in a manner which we do not readily understand. We know that itch may be repelled, and not cured; we know that, in a weak languid state, the fomes of the disease will exist without the eruptions appearing; but in either case, we see only a want of irritability in the skin to admit of inflammation. The

reason of this opinion is, that in such instances the perspiration is not infectious, as we have frequently observed. Thus a person brought into an hospital will have, after some weeks, the itch, which can be traced to a previous infection many months distant, while in this period, from low diet, sickness, or other debilitating causes, it has neither appeared on the skin, or infected a child which slept in the tainted person's bosom. Every one conversant with hospitals can bring many such instances. Besides, our author found a few grains of sulphur and camphor would throw out itch, and the state of the sore appeared immediately mended. This is undoubtedly a misconception: the appearance of itch, and the melioration of the sore, arose from the improved state of the system. M. Boecking has given no peculiar marks of a scabious venereal sore, but the general ones which relate to scurvy, or scrophula, as well as to itch. Mercury internally, he justly thinks, is no cure for the scabies; and this disease is perfectly compatible with syphilis. Both exist separately, for there is no venereal itch: we may add, that there is on a similar foundation no scabious bubo. The plan for curing the venereal itch is by sulphur and camphor, with the external use of warm bathing.

The observations by M. Plenck, on the antispasmodic effects of ipecacuanha in the convulsions of puerperal and child-bed women, deserve particular attention. He seems not to distinguish the causes and the circumstances with accuracy; but contend that with bleeding, which he tacitly admits, ipecacuanha is generally successful. He gave it first with a view of evacuating putrid saburrae from the stomach, and found that the convulsions, almost miraculously, ceased. We must be more particular. Convulsions of puerperal and parturient women are owing, very generally, either to nervous affections, or determination to the head. The first are generally owing to the pressure of the child on the nerves of the sacrum; and this case is distinctly known by the spasms ceasing in the moment of pairs. The others are owing to impeded circulation through the cord, when the child, in locking, presses on it; to the repulsion of the milk and lochia. So far as our experience warrants, the first class only causes convulsions: the second produces fever, phrenitis, and peritoneal inflammation. Yet the second may sometimes produce convulsions, and, if they continue, as our author asserts, after delivery, we may attribute it to altered determination. In the first class, however, ipecacuanha is only useful as an antispasmodic, for, if it operates in the other, it must be owing to its nauseating or its emetic power. Our author gives it as an antispasmodic, and administers half or a third of a grain in sugar, interposing bleeding or laxative glysters. Unfortunately, women in this situation can seldom take any thing, and we would offer our advice, that an ounce or two of the ipecacuanha wine should be given in glysters. At all events, this plan should be attended to and carefully

fully tried. From additional observations, we can add, that our former conduct of attending to the dilatation of the os tæneæ, and bringing on labour when it begins to dilate, is still successful. We have seen no instance in which convulsions would be probably fatal, but labour has come on previous to that event, which, by hastening the labour, we have been in time to prevent. Convulsions, probably owing to altered determination, we have not seen, and suspect that this cause seldom exists.

M. Strutt's Dissertation on the Use and Effect of Roncalius' Liniment in Scrophulous Affections follows. Roncalius orders the gall-bladder of an ox, with the bile, to be mixed with three table spoonfuls of common salt and as much nut-oil. The whole must be exposed to the sun or a moderate heat for three days; and the ichor obtained must be applied to the tumor on a cloth. The bile was found to weigh $6\frac{1}{2}$ ounces; the oil 7 drachms, and the salt $1\frac{1}{4}$ of an ounce. The heat of the fire was applied for thirty-six hours, or the summer sun for three days. Our author thinks every ingredient in the liniment adapted to the disease: he advises the remote causes to be removed, and the seminum to be at the same time obviated. Different causes are added in support of his opinion.

M. à Brambilla next describes a species of scaly elephantiasis, which rendered the child almost an Æthiop. It was cured, as usual, by mercury, attending carefully to the different natural evacuations. The scales were so small that they were scarcely seen.

M. Scarpa's Commentary on the Accessory Nerve, that is the spinal nerve, which is combined with the eighth pair from the brain, is extensive, elaborate and perspicuous. We greatly regret that we can convey no idea of it without the plate. This is the last dissertation of the volume before us, and we shall only add, that the plates which illustrate it are executed very imperfectly. In the essays there are many marks of accurate judgment, extensive erudition, and sagacious practice: our English surgeons may, we think, learn much from it.

Supplement aux Memoires de M. le Duc de St. Simon, aux l'Observateur veridique, sur le Regne de Louis XIV. sur les Premiers Epoux du Regne suivant, pour servir de Suite & de Compliment aux trois Volumes déjà publiés, avec des Notes historique, et critiques. 4 Toms. Londres.

THE three volumes of the Memoirs of the Duke de St. Simon, which were published last year, and of which we gave an account in the present volume, p. 234 did not, we observed, contain nearly the whole of the original manuscript. Those, who possessed it, thought they might now supply what the ignorance, the prudence, or the personal interest of the former editor, prevented him from publishing. It was necessary also to render some of the mutilated articles more complete;

plete; and this has been done with such scrupulous exactness, that we are assured we have now the original manuscript, in all its extent, perfectly entire. The duke was frank, spirited, but severe: the editor constantly reminds us of this fault, and seems afraid to follow him, without this notice. He praises however the solidity of his reasoning and the purity of his intentions.

As an original and minure author, the duke may be compared to Plutarch and to Suetonius; but less indulgent than the first, and more noble than the second, the austerity of his manners, and the energy of his character make him a harsh colourist; but he brings the picture before us: we see every thing that is done without reserve or disguise. Our readers however have had a specimen of his abilities, and it is now only necessary to extract a passage or two from the Supplement.

Louis XI. I. gave more than one proof of greatness of soul and of courage. After Corbia was taken by the Spaniards, a council of war was held; and the cardinal Richlieu gave the first opinion, advising the most cowardly measures, and particularly the retreat of the king across the Seine. The other members of the council were fearful of giving a different opinion. The king suffered them to speak, and then asked if they had any thing to add—'as they answered they had not, he said it was his turn to give his sentiments. He employed a quarter of an hour in refuting their reasons, as much time in endeavouring to prove that the only step to be taken was the recovery of Corbia, and ordered that this plan should be pursued the next morning.' The city was retaken, and this bold step saved the state. Louis also attacked and carried the barricades at Suza, contrary to the cardinal's advice, on the 9th of March 1619.

Louis XIV. promised Louvois, that he would not declare his marriage, with madame Maintenon; but, by dint of sollicitations and interest, she had persuaded him to do it, and he was on the point of declaring it. 'Louvois hearing the report, runs to the king, draws from his side a small sword, which he wore, and presenting the handle to the king, begged to be killed on the spot, if he persisted in declaring his marriage; in breaking his word with his minister and even with himself. He must, in that case, his minister told him, submit to be considered as infamous, in the eyes of all Europe, which he could not bear to see. The king's eyes sparkled; he stamped with his feet, and ordered Louvois to leave him. Louvois clasped his legs close, that he might not escape, represented his own glory and that of his crown, contrasted with the shame he would bring on both, and which would afterwards kill him with regret and confusion: in a word, he exerted himself so far, that the king promised him a second time, that he would not declare his marriage.'

When the duke of Orleans went to take the command of the armies of Philip V. king of Spain, Louis XIV. asked who he meant

meant to take with him. The duke replied, Fontenoy, 'What my nephew, says the king, the son of that foolish woman, who is constantly extolling M. d'Arnauld every where, and a Jansenist too! You should have no such person with you.—' Faith sir, said the duke, I know not what the mother has done, but, as to the son being a Jansenist—he does not even believe in God.' 'Is it possible,' answered the king? do you assure me of it? if it be so, there is no harm; and you may carry him.' The duke told me the story, the same afternoon, half dead with laughing; we see by it how far the king went; to find no comparison between an atheist and a Jansenist, and to prefer the former!

We shall finish our extracts with one character, that of marshall Catinat; for the duke excels in drawing portraits.

'Marshall de Catinat has been so often spoken of; we have heard so frequently of his virtue, his wisdom, his modesty, his disinterestedness, the rare superiority of his sentiments and his great military talents, that it only remains for me to speak of his death, at a very advanced age, without any sickness, or having acquired any fortune. It happened at his little house of St. Gratien, near St. Denis, where he retired, and from whence he had not gone out for some years, and where he chose to see scarcely any person.

'In this situation he reminded us by his simplicity, frugality, contempt of the world, the tranquillity of his own mind, and the uniformity of his conduct of those great men who after the triumphs, which they so well deserved, returned quietly to their plough, attached to their country and insensible to the ingratitude of Rome, which they had served so well. Catinat profited by his philosophy, in consequence of his great piety; He had genius, good sense, and mature reflection: he never forgot his original: his dress, his equipage, his furniture and his house were exceedingly simple. His air and his manner were the same.

'He was large, brown and thin; with a pensive air, slow and meek; good eyes, with great animation. He lamented the errors which signaized themselves in succession; the destruction of all emulation; luxury; emptiness and ignorance; the confusion of the state; the inquisition, established in the place of the police. He saw every mark of decay; and he said, that order could only be again introduced, by the most dangerous anarchy.'

Many of the articles of this Supplement contain relations of sieges and battles. They are not nearly so entertaining, as the anecdotes, though of greater value to historians. The more we see of the authentic memoirs of this reign, we are the more convinced, that its history has not yet been written, as it ought to be. The age of Louis XIV. by Voltaire, is a brilliant work; but the splendour of that reign seems to have intoxicated him, and he stops not to reflect at what a price it was purchased.

The

The love of glory, which was the animating principle of this monarch was not always accompanied by judicious and accurate reflection. It was not then discovered, that the truest glory of kings was the happiness of the people. But we have not room for reflections or those traits, recorded by the duke, which the future historian may employ. For more full information must refer to the work, of which we hope to see a good translation.

Histoire de l'Académie Royale des Sciences Année 1785, avec les Mémoires de Physique & Mathématique de la même Année. 4to. Paris. 1788.

AFTER an unexpected delay, which depended not on ourselves, we return to the succeeding volume of this very valuable collection: the last is noticed in our LXIV volume p. 553; and as we have much foreign matter, which calls for admission, we must turn to the work, without farther preface or apology.

In the place of the history, we find first the examination of a plan for removing the Hotel Dieu, and some remarks on the new method of constructing hospitals for the sick. The design originated in a memoir by sieur Poyet architect and controller of the buildings in Paris; and was referred to Messrs. de Laffonne, Daubenton, Tenon, Bailly, Lavoisier, La Place, Coulumb and D'Arcet, the authors of the examination. We find, that they had no regular account of the particular regulations of the Hotel Dieu; but it seems to have received, on some occasions, 4800 patients in 1219 beds: 168 beds have been since added. The mean number of patients is about 2500. Their remarks on the inconveniency of its construction, and on the attentions necessary in the new hospitals, show that they have studied the subject, with great attention; and that Mess. Tenon and Coulumb have not made their tour to England in vain. The whole is very amply and satisfactorily treated; but we can extract only the mortality in the different general hospitals, adduced as comparative instances. In Edinburgh the deaths are one in twenty-five and half; in the hospitals of the Holy Ghost at Rome, one in eleven; at Lyons, about one in twelve and half; at St. Denis, one in fifteen and one eighth; at Versailles, one in eight and two-fifths; at St. Sulpice, one in six and a half; at the Charité, one in seven and a half; at the Hotel Dieu, one in four and a half. On the whole, they conclude, that the Hotel Dieu is insufficient, too contracted, unwholesome, and injurious. They think M. Poyet's plan too vast but propose to build four hospitals in long parallel galleries.

The next report is by Mess. l'Abbé Bossut, l'Abbé Rochon, de Fourcroy, and le marquis de Condorcet, on the interior navigation of Bretagne; but this is a local subject and not easily understood, without an accurate knowledge of the country, or the assistance of a good map. A list of the memoirs presented to the

the society, and the eloges of the marquis de Courtivron and the duke de Praslin follow.

The first memoir is by M. de la Lande, on the quantity of the depression of the polar parts of the earth. The experiments with the pendulum have been found to give a different result from that which is drawn from the actual measurement of degrees; but it is the object of M. de la Lande to show, that, when accurately examined, they agree very well; they agree also with the theory and the laws of hydrostatics. To perceive this agreement, however, it is necessary to give up the homogeneity of the earth, and to suppose, what from other experiments is found to be very probable, that the density of this planet increases uniformly as we proceed towards the centre. The number of observations on the pendulum collected in this memoir, renders it in other respects very valuable. The depression may be estimated at about one three hundredth or about twelve seconds difference between the equator and the poles, reckoning the horizontal parallax to be ten.

M. le Gentil's memoir on the origin of the zodiac, the explanation of the twelve signs, and the chronology of Newton is ingenious, and fanciful. He has presented to the academy, we find, in July 1785, a work on this subject, at length, of which this is only an abstract. The zodiac he thinks was established in a very remote æra, and supposing that period to be the age of Atlas, when the canicular period was established, and the first stars in Virgo were in the summer solstice, the chronological computations will agree very well. Virgo was therefore Isis, the instructor of the husbandmen, and her feast was celebrated at the summer solstice, marked by the previous appearance of Sirius, at his heliacal rising. The Gemini at nine months distance show the fertility of Isis or the earth, and coincided with the period of harvest, in many nations of the East. The age of Atlas is said to be four thousand two hundred and forty-two years before Christ. The period of the colures and tropics are very different; and they seem to have been established at different æras. The Indian zodiac, described in the Philosophical Transactions, resembles pretty accurately, that found on some of our Gothic churches, particularly one at Paris, and as is said, one at York. This similarity is singularly curious, and might afford room for some reflections, if our limits would allow it: we hope to be able to return to this subject.

M. Fongeroix de Bondaroy recommends the bark of the plane-tree for the use of the tanner. The advantage is, that in this tree the bark is deciduous; and the disadvantage, that it is less strong as an astringent, besides that it has never been tried in actual practice. From the comparative chemical experiments, given in this volume, we suspect that it would be useless.

In the following memoir, the same author enquires into the purposes for which the skin of the morse may be employed. In general, however, it is a repetition of M. Duhamel's observations, made before the year 1755. The skins were tanned and worked

worked in oil: the former process was imperfect; but, in the latter way, it was useful as covering for chairs and similar purposes. The tanned leather was half an inch; the oiled about two-thirds of an inch thick. The present author supposes, that the skin of some fish, of our own seas, might be usefully employed in manufactures.

M. de la Place's, theory of Jupiter and Saturn, we have already had occasion to mention; but we cannot engage in discussions purely mathematical. This memoir relates to the irregularities observed in the motion of Saturn, from other attractions besides the sun. The theory of Jupiter is referred to another volume.

In the next memoir, M. Bruffonet gives an anatomical description of the sea wolf; the *anarichas lupus* of Linnæus. It is classed by the Swedish naturalists among the apodes; and the name *anarichas* first given by Gesner, signifies climbing, for its motion is slow and undulating like that of the eel. Its flesh is firm and not very agreeable. The description is particular and cannot be abridged: a very accurate figure is subjoined.

The same author describes the spermatic arteries of fish, particularly of the spinous fish, (in the *Exox Belfone* Lin.) These vessels rise on the right side, from the hepatic artery, and on the left, from the splenic: sometimes on the right, the vessel rises from the trunk of the aorta. In the perch, there is a single ovary only, and a single spermatic artery. Our author's memoir, on the respiration of fish, we have formerly had occasion to examine in our *Foreign Intelligence*, vol. LXV. p. 135.

The abbé Tessier has communicated a memoir on some particulars of the bald cypress of America, the *cupressus disticha* of Linnæus. The American name arises from its being the only cypress which loses its leaves, and, in English authors, it is called the deciduous cypress. The wood is said to be soft, easily worked, without splitting; to be durable, and not liable to be infected by worms: the peculiarity of the tree is, that protuberances arise from its roots, which seem to come near the ground that they may appear above the surface, and, after each protuberance is formed, the root again dips almost perpendicularly. Sometimes they rise seven or eight feet above the soil, and sometimes appear at a great distance from the tree: their covering is reddish, their substance ligneous, and they contain a greater proportion of resin than the wood. The *cupressus disticha* thrives in France in turf bogs, occasionally inundated: the wood of the plane-tree in America is more oily; that in France more hard. The soils agree only in containing the remains of vegetables: in France it is calcareous; in America stony. The utility of the protuberances to the tree is unknown. They are employed, when hollowed, as cups; and, in ship-building, as wood that is naturally bent.

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The property of being electrified by heating was for a time supposed to be inherent in the tourmaline alone; but it was afterwards extended to other schorls, and particularly found in the ruby and the topaz of Brazil. The abbé Haüy has discovered it in the thin lamellated fossil, called erroneously scieretic spar, and afterwards a zeolite; but found in reality, by M. Pelletier, to be a crystallised calamine: it is found in the lead mine of Brisgaw. It resembles the tourmaline in its electrical properties, but preserves them longer: in one instance the electricity was apparent after twelve hours, while the tourmaline generally loses it in an hour. This substance too resembles the tourmaline in its positive and negative sides. Our author describes his apparatus, which is very simple, and tells us this is the only substance which has a similar property with the schorls. Our author has tried also the effect of electricity to discover the presence of metals in minerals, or to establish distinctive characters of substances resembling each other: in this way he distinguishes an ore of tin, in coloured crystals, from some kinds of blende, which greatly resemble it: the tin gave evident sparks. The only other minerals which gave sparks were several varieties of the red, yellow, or green jasper; the pectstein; the sparry, or fibrous schorl, as well as that kind which occurs in inorganized masses; schisti of every kind, and plumbago.

The abbé Haüy's manner of making herbals is very ingenious. As flowers soon lose their colour, he draws the shape of the flower in its natural colour, discharges the colour from the petals by spirits of wine, and applies the discoloured petals to the drawing. The flower is afterwards put in its proper place on the herbal, where the stalk and leaves have been previously preserved.

The next memoir is also by the abbé Haüy on the structure of different metallic crystals; but it is out of our power, without the diagrams, to give any proper account of it. Our author finds the metallic crystals as regular and determined in their shapes as those of salts or earths.

An observation on the moon, in its passage over the meridian, about two hours before its occultation of many stars of the Pleiades, is equally incapable of abridgement.

M. Sage, in the following memoir, describes a process for extracting from spirit of wine a concrete acid, resembling the acid of sugar. It is long since that an acid has been known to exist in spirit of wine: its crystals were first separated by Hiernius, and called by his name. M. Sage separates the acid in the greatest quantity, by mixing three parts of nitrous acid to one of spirits of wine. The same author tells us, that the regulus of manganese, sent to the academy by M. de Peyrouse, was allayed by iron. He suspected it, by its not efflorescing in the air. A specimen sent by M. de Morveau was also impure. He subjoins the method of reducing the calx, and tells

us, that the uncrySTALLIZED magnesia generally contains iron; or copper.

M. Sage, in the subsequent memoirs, shows us how to separate iron from copper, which sometimes, in apparently pure copper, amounts to one fifth; analyzes a green species of heavy spar, and shows it to be very different from copper mineralised by the marine acid, which Bergman supposed this fossil to be; and proves the superiority of turf, reduced to charcoal, above the charcoal of wood in keeping up a strong, brisk, and continued fire; analyses an ore of antimony and of earthy lead combined with the arsenical and vitriolic acids, as well as a new species of an earthy solid ore of bismuth, covered with a yellowish green efflorescence. In these analyses, he does not assign the different proportions, and adds little to his general account of their peculiar nature.

M. de la Lande's memoir on the motions of Venus follows; but we cannot abridge it: we may, however, observe, that he shows we should add $13''$ to the secular motion of this planet, which will diminish its revolution $12''$, making the tropical revolution $224 \text{ d. } 16 \text{ h. } 41', 27.5'$ and the sidereal to $7', 40.3''$ less. The inclination is augmented $15''$, and is consequently $3 \text{ d. } 23' 35''$.

M. d'Argelet's observations on the planets, made in the military school, 1781, with a mural quadrant of seven and a half feet radius, are incapable of abridgment. This gentleman is the companion of M. Peyrouse in his voyage round the world.

M. Berthollet's memoir, on dephlogisticated marine acid, we have already had occasion to notice vol. LXII. p. 293; but his observations on aqua regia and on some affinities of the marine acid are in a great degree new. We have however more than once hinted at them. He proves, first, that in a mixture of the nitrous and marine acids, a portion of the last unites to a part of the vital air of the nitrous acid, and separates in the form of dephlogisticated marine acid, and that the nitrous gas, either before combined with the nitrous acid, or formed at the same time with the dephlogisticated marine acid, is retained in the aqua regia. Secondly, that the vital air is separated from the acid, not by a superior affinity, but in consequence of a double affinity. Thirdly, that the metals are not dissolved by the dephlogisticated marine acid; but by the combination, and the concurrent affinities of the different ingredients and the metal. The anomalies in the affinities of the marine acid, compared with those of the vitriolic and nitrous, our author proves to be owing to the cause assigned by Bergman, in the ninth section of his Treatise on Elective Attractions; and that the varieties are owing to external and accidental circumstances. M. Berthollet adds some observations on M. Kirwan's opinion, that these varieties depend on the matter of heat, passing from one to the other.

The next memoir is by the same author, on the decomposition of spirit of wine and of æther by means of pure air. We,

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in general, know the composition of spirit of wine : our author found in it, the acid and the saccharine parts. The æther is, he thinks, an oil separated from spirit of wine, and combined with an excess of inflammable gas, a very small quantity of acid, which has contributed to its formation. Our author does not think, that the vital air exists in the æther, though the dephlogisticated marine acid only forms marine æther ; but that, by combining with the inflammable gas and oil, it occasions the separation of this fluid. The reason why the acetous acid did not appear in some of our author's experiments, we now well know.

M. Berthollet's memoir on the analysis of volatile alkali, and on the combination of vital air with oils, we have already explained in our Intelligence : but as it was shortly mentioned, we may observe that, with the assistance of vital air, oil will dissolve copper ; and that, when expressed oils were exposed to vital air, they acquired the properties of wax. In this operation a vegetable mucilage seems to separate from them, which probably furnishes the saccharine acid, found by Scheele in oils. Ætherial oils thicken also in consequence of the union of the vital air of the atmosphere, though somewhat may be owing to the escape of the inflammable gas. In reality, oils seem to contain the radical of an acid which is completed by the addition of the air, and is afterwards discoverable in them.

M. Berthollet, in a former memoir, compared the produce obtained by means of chemical agents, from vegetable and animal substances. He found the latter, when treated with nitrous acid, contained a greater or less quantity of saccharine acid, a particular oil, and a residuum not yet explained, while the volatile alkali appeared to be formed during the combustion or putrefaction. But now the nature of the volatile alkali is better understood, our author enquires into the previous existence of its principles. The mofete* seemed the distinguishing one, and, to trace it, he examined the different airs separated during the process with the nitrous acid. On dissolving animal substances ; (M. Berthollet employed silk) he found the mofete copiously separated, and the nitrous gas always followed, if too much heat was not employed ; as if the acid was not decomposed till after that separation. With vegetable substances, the product was nitrous gas and fixed air. As he found the mephytis one of the ingredients of the volatile alkali, in the distillation of animal substances, if it be not discovered afterwards in the other products, we must conclude, he thinks, that it contributed to the formation of the alkali ; and, if found at all, it will be discovered in the aerial productions to which he next attends.

In this pursuit, M. Berthollet enquires into the real foun-

* Mofete or mephytis is what we have called with sufficient accuracy, phlogisticated air. See Crit. Rev. vol. lxii. p. 137.

daion of the different qualities of inflammable gas produced from different sources, with a view of finding whether that procured in the distillation of animal substances contained any mephytis; but, in all the experiments where the different kinds were detonated with vital air, the gas from silk left as great a residuum as that from vegetables. The mephytis, therefore, was combined with some portion of the inflammable air in the volatile alkali; and where we find mephytis, we may, he thinks, conclude that, with proper precautions, volatile alkali may be discovered. Thus, animal oils are distinguished from vegetable, by containing mephytis and by affording volatile alkali, in consequence of repeated distillations; while animal fat produces an acid, and contains no mephytis. The other ingredient, the inflammable gas, must proceed from the oil, if we do not allow it to proceed from the decomposition of water: fixed air too seems to be contained, in a certain quantity, in all animal substances, and is usually combined with the mephytis. The inflammable air, therefore, joining with this principle in animal substances, and with the saccharine matter in vegetable, forms the two different bodies which furnish the criteria of distinction between them, viz. volatile alkali and ardent spirit. Another peculiarity of animal substances is the phosphoric acid, which M. Berthollet has constantly found, not only in substances purely animal, but in what is now sufficiently known by the name of the animal parts of vegetables; and in mustard.

We have enlarged our account of this memoir, because it contains one very important step in the analysis of animal substances. We regret, however, that we must, for this reason, as well as from the fear of exceeding our limits, defer the remainder of the volume to another opportunity. We are too anxious for its conclusion to suffer the delay to be long.

Praxis Medica Systematicæ expofita, Selectis Diarii Hofocomii Fredericiani illustrata. Auctore Friderico Ludovico Bang, M. D. Hofocomii Hujus Medico primar, et Professore Univerfitatis Hafniensis. Hafniæ. 8vo. 1789.

Selecta Diarii Hofocomii regii Fredericiani Hafniensis, Tom. I. Annos 1782. 3 & 4. continens Tom. II. Annos 1785, 6 & 7. Auctore F. L. Bang, M. D. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1789.

IF science in general, or the practice of medicine in particular, can be improved, or our knowledge of its various parts extended, through the medium of a literary journal, the most probable means of success will be to compare the experiments of distant countries, where the views of professors may differ, where nature may appear in various forms, or her deviations induce uncommon or extraordinary appearances. Science is, at present, so widely extended, and the liberality of philosophers so conspicuous, that, in one secluded spot, we may

to contemplate the globe, from the shores of Greenland to the Cape of Good Hope; and, from the western coasts that border on the Atlantic, to the German ocean. In a single volume of our Journal, we have often made these excursions, and returned, we hope, not without profit to ourselves and our readers. On the subject which now engages our attention, our enquiries have been confined, on the continent, to the practice of France and of Germany; and it is with pleasure, that we extend our views, particularly when we meet with objects so much deserving our attention. This system of medical practice is, in many respects, important; and the cases, detailed in the Diary, seem to be related with as much fidelity as they have been treated with judgment.

The preface contains only some account of the author's plan and design. The work is intended as a text-book for those who attend his instructions in the hospital: he has given, he tells us, the general doctrines illustrated by the facts contained in the Diary, and added some formulæ employed in that house and referred to in the work. By this means it is more complete than a syllabus is usually found to be; and method gives an additional sanction to the judicious advice of the author, that the student should first attend to one system only, and avoid the embarrassment which would arise from different and often opposite directions.

Dr. Bang's classification is more correct than in any system we have yet seen, in some respects, though in others we think it may be improved. He divides diseases into febrile ones (pyrexiz); pains not attended with fever; neuroses; diseases of the excretions and cachexies. The fourth class is not established with accuracy, for diseases of the excretions are either febrile or nervous; and our author does not adhere to his own division, for tussis (cough) is a nervous disease, though a depraved excretion forms a part of it; and hæmorrhage is called a disease of the excretions, though frequently no excretory organ is affected. If he had distributed the fourth class among the diseases of the first and third, he would have been more accurate.

In his subdivisions, he is more exact. The pyrexiz are divided into fevers or pyrexiz without pain; and phlegmasiz, fevers with pain. The genera of the first order are, febris intermittens, febris continua simplex, febris putrida, febris exanthematica, and febris puerperalis. With an accuracy of classification of which we have seen no example, though we have more than once hinted at the propriety of it, he makes the small pox, measles and scarlet fever, species of febris exanthematica. The febris lactea, and febris puerperalis maligna are also species of the last genus. Of the second order, the genera are inflammatio capitis; angina; inflammatio pectoris; inflammatio abdominis; and febris rheumatica. The usual particular inflammations, as in the first order, rank as species. The second class is divided into universal pains or arthritis, and into particular pains. Of the first order, there is the regular gout, and the

anomalous gout: podagra and ischias are species of the first genus. The second order contains pains of the head; pains of the neck and breast; pains of the stomach; colic; pains of the liver (heptalgia); of the spleen (splenalgia); from stone (lithiasis); of the lower belly (hysteralgia). In this order the species are taken from causes and other circumstances not always evident; and, by his conduct in this respect, the professor loses sight of the first very accurate distinction, in the establishment of species. The neuroses are divided into adynamia and spasmus. Under the first order is the vertigo, lypothymia, apoplexia, paralysis, coma, and asthma; under the second, tetanus, convulsio, epilepsia, hysteria and tussis. The genera of the first order are certainly too numerous; and the species in each are frequently liable to the objection just stated.

The diseases of the excretions are fluxus sanguinei, alvi fluxus vitiiati, and seri fluxus vitiiati. Under the first we find hæmorrhagia, a genus; and the particular hæmorrhages very properly arranged under it, as species: the second and third genera are mænostasias and hæmorrhoids. The alvi fluxus vitiiati are vomitus, cholera morbus, diarrhœa, dysenteria, and alvi obliptio. This arrangement appears to be very artificial, and exceptionable. The last order contains diabetes, enuresis, pyuria, stranguria, ischuria, gonorrhœa virulenta, gonorrhœa benigna and leucorrhœa. But, if this order were allowed, every passive mucous discharge, and many inflammations, might be introduced with as much propriety as the present genera. The cachexiæ contain the hydrops, tabes, and decolorationes. The genera of the first order are hydrops intercus, hydrops abdominalis, hydrothorax, and hydrocephalus; the second contains rachitis and atrophica; the third, icterus, scorbutus, lues venerea, and scabies. Perhaps the phthisis, as a febrile disease, should not have been admitted in this class; but it is in every system an artificial one, and can scarcely contain more than one natural association, the dropsies.

We have dwelt longer on professor Bang's classification, than some of our readers may think nosological discussions deserve; because we perceived many improvements in it, which we wished to point out, and, by this means, we show the different diseases which share his attention. We shall now give a short account of his opinions on some particular subjects.

In putrid fevers, we perceive, that the northern climate of Copenhagen prevents any violent degree of putrefaction. Our author's laxative is cream of tartar, which he employs, without any very anxious caution of going too far in the evacuation: in greater debility, he gives, very properly, one part of rhubarb with two of bark. Emetics, he gives early, but if they have been neglected, and marks of impurities in the stomach occur, he advises them in the advanced states, except when there are great marks of debility and oppression: in these circumstances he tells us, that they fail, or bring on a dangerous diarrhœa. The bark he recommends chiefly in a strong decoction,

tion, and gives a table-spoonful or two every two hours. Camphor is, in his opinion, an useful antiseptic or nervine : musk, in the last state of subsultus, tremor, &c. he says, is an excellent remedy given in the dose of four grains, in a camphorated mixture : he strongly recommends also his nerve liquor, viz. Hoffman's anodyne, in which one sixth of camphor is dissolved. Strong beer, he thinks, will not supersede the use of wine ; and mustard-seed, (we suppose the flower of mustard) much employed, at some period, in the naval hospitals, and greatly commended, did not succeed in his hands : he speaks of contrayerva and serpentaria as much inferior to musk. In general, from our author's descriptions and practice, the putrid fevers appear in the beginning to be attended with more bile, and in the end with less putrefaction than our usual epidemics.

We anxiously looked for some remarks on the puerperal fever ; but our author wholly relies on the use of emetics, recommended by Doucet, and his mucilaginous linctus, to which he occasionally adds kermes mineral. He gives also gentle laxatives, and applies the volatile liniment to the abdomen. In the Diary, we perceive many instances of the true puerperal fever, which terminated fatally, with the usual appearances of gangrene in the omentum, or some of the viscera. These were in general taken into the hospital in an advanced period of the disease ; though two, properly treated according to Doucet's plan almost from the first attack, recovered. We perceive our author is not afraid of bleeding in the early stage of the complaint, or when the pain shifts to other parts, in consequence of a supposed metastasis.

We were also a little disappointed at seeing no particular remarks on the angina trachealis and maligna, except what is professedly copied, respecting the latter disease, from English authors. Inflammation of the lungs is, however, treated of at length, and the practice is clear, solid and judicious. We cannot avoid the temptation of transcribing our author's remarks, on the management of expectoration, the only safe mode of solution, though a modern sect regards it with a careless eye. We shall translate them for general use.

Expectoration, the most common crisis of pneumonia, is to be managed in the following manner : 1. Till about the sixth day, it is to be left to itself, as not critical, and as the inflammation may yet be considered as crude. Till this time, the former antiphlogistic method is suitable, and alone sufficient. 2. The expectoration, after this period becoming very bloody, the same method must be pursued, and the expectoration must not be promoted by any remedies, since the bleeding would be increased by them. 3. When the sputum has ceased to be bloody, or is only slightly so, and grows mucous, yellowish, and more dense, medicines styled expectorants are very proper to clear the lungs, and evacuate the exuding matter ; these are either two spoonfuls of the decoction of seneka, every two or three

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hours ;

hours; or a grain of kermes mineral, with a scruple of sugar, alternated with a camphorated emulsion. The last I consider as the more powerful expectorant, and prefer it to the decoction of seneka. If the body be lax, gum arabic is to be joined with the kermes, instead of sugar. For the same purpose a large blister to the middle of the breast, or between the shoulders, is very advantageous; and though one has been already applied to mitigate the pain, yet it must be repeated. An emollient vapour too, breathed through a proper funnel, is of service in great extremities. If a more copious, continued and puriform expectoration comes on, and the strength fails, a gruel of rye, and a decoction of china (we suspect the author means china-chinæ, the bark) with seneka, must be taken every three hours, or more seldom. The expectoration may be so great, that stronger corroborants and styptics may be necessary.—See Diary 1783, Aug. No. ix*.—If there is no expectoration, which is a very uncommon circumstance, expectorants may be used to promote it; but, during the fever, antiphlogistics must be alone employed. N. B. A moderate diarrhœa does no harm; it requires only a camphorated emulsion, without nitre, and gum arabic joined to the expectorants. Accidental hæmorrhages must be left to themselves.*

We need not add any thing to this account, except what the difference of climate may occasion in the appearance of the disease. With us, the expectoration becomes often bloody before the sixth day; but this bloody sputum is not dangerous. The kermes mineral seems to act as a relaxant, rather than a stimulating expectorant, and we do not find it increase the bleeding. In this climate also, towards the end of the disease, the expectoration sometimes fails from weakness, an event which the more robust inhabitants of the North are probably unused to. We then find the stimulants, viz. the gum ammoniac and the oily emulsion, absolutely necessary. Van Swieten, we remark, in his *Constitutiones Epidemicæ*, never applied blisters in peripneumony; he trusted to demulcents and very moderate laxatives; this was his early practice, while he lived in Holland, where the vessels have seldom a great inflammatory tension.

The scarlatina we find, occurs in Copenhagen, in its putrid form, and our author's management of it seems very judicious; the other eruptions, as petechiæ, purpura rubra & alba, urticaria, zona & pemphigus, he thinks are not peculiar diseases, but depending, for their appearance, on the nature of the fe-

* The case referred to was that of a young man of twenty-two, who came into the hospital, on the ninth day, after having been bled twice. He was again bled twice, but the expectoration did not come on till the fifteenth day, and it was then puriform. The sputum afterwards became brown, and he was relieved, at last, by the bark with one fourth of nitre, and one half the quantity of cascarrilla and Armenian bole, made into an electary with diacodium. There seems to have been an evident suppuration, and the matter was easily evacuated.

ver, as it is inflammatory or putrid; or on other circumstances. In this opinion, he is probably very correct.

We have chiefly selected the specimens of our author's judgment and ability from the acute diseases, because in these we may expect the greatest variety of appearance, and consequently of practice; but we can enlarge no farther. We need not again recommend these Elements; we have said enough to show, that this is a very valuable work, and that it may be read with advantage even by practitioners. The formulæ subjoined are efficacious, and elegant.

The Diary contains the cases and dissections: the narratives are in general short and perspicuous. They are introduced by a description of the Frederician hospital, which appears to be a well-regulated institution.

Voyage du jeune Anacharsis en Grèce. (Continued from Vol. LXVII. p. 531.)

WE return with real pleasure to these very entertaining, and, as they have appeared, instructive volumes; but, while we reflect that our last account did not proceed to the end of the introduction, it must be our endeavour to step on more hastily, and to concentrate what it is impossible to give at length.

The savage Aborigines of Greece had received, the abbé tells us, some check from the colonies which Egypt had sent to Argos under Inachus; though the real establishment of permanent colonies only took place under Cecrops in Attica, Cadmus in Bœotia, and Danaus in Argos. From the time of Cecrops to the capture of Athens by the Lacedæmonians, 1250 years elapsed, which our author divides into the period before the establishment of the Olympiads, and that subsequent to it. In the former period we have only fables; yet the abbé thinks them of service in explaining the religion, manners, and monuments of Greece: he consequently considers them as ancient traditions. Cecrops reformed the savage tribes of Attica, taught them agriculture, and established justice by the institution of the Areopagus. *To increase the influence of religious worship*, he multiplied the objects of adoration; but forbade the sacrifice of victims: in consequence of these regulations, Attica could soon boast of 20,000 inhabitants. After Cecrops seventeen kings reigned in about 565 years, of which Codrus was the last.

Cadmus came to Bœotia at the head of a colony of Phœnicians, and brought with him the art of expressing the fugitive sounds of words by signs. Greece, however, soon relapsed into its former barbarity, and required those champions, of whom we have so often heard, to clear it from robbers, monsters, and oppressors: their bravery, however, at times degenerated into rashness and violence. Of these Theseus was the most patriotic legislator; for to him Attica owed her safety, and Athens her establishment, as well as her best institutions. The Theban and the Trojan wars which succeeded are sufficiently

ciently known, as well as the establishment of the Ionians in Asia, and the sacrifice of Codrus. These facts are introduced by some interelling reflections on the heroic ages, and a most able, animated defence of Homer, by the author, under the disguise of this untutored Scythian. It is only in the second part, or more strictly, 150 years after the establishment of the first Olympiad, that the real history of Athens commences, and it is continued from that time to the period of Anacharsis, during 300 years: this, as we have seen, is divided into the age of Solon; of Themistocles and Aristides; and of Pericles.

In the popular tumults, and amidst all the horrors of factious contentions, Solon, descended from the kings of Athens, was elected first magistrate, legislator, and absolute sovereign. His laws are well known. He was compelled, it is said, to establish a democracy; but he tempered this system in such a manner, that an oligarchy was conspicuous in the body of the Areopagites, an aristocracy in the manner of electing magistrates, and a pure democracy in the liberties given to the lowest citizens. The destruction of his work is supposed to have been hastened by his exalting the people to the seat of justice, and allowing them to be called to this office by lot.

To Themistocles and Aristides Greece was indebted for its military fame. The character of Darius is drawn advantageously, and his invasion of Greece is attributed to the pride of Atossa. The events are well known; and we have already related those traits of general independence which would not allow of any particular merit: the honour was claimed by the whole army. The virtue and integrity of Aristides are described in the most interesting manner. 'The scheme of Themistocles, says he, is of the highest utility; but it is equally unjust.' 'We will have nothing to do with it, replied the Greeks.'

In the age of Pericles national honour was not equally respected: it was the age of luxury and dissipation: it destroyed the strength, the heroism, the wisdom, the virtue, and the constitution of Greece: Pericles corrupted Greece, while he remained uncorrupted. Aspasia, his mistress, and afterwards his wife, reduced licentiousness to a system, and actually established a society of courtezans. He reigned because he seemed to despise it: he governed others because he could govern himself. Anacharsis concludes this gloomy representation, and consoles us with the view of arts and sciences, which, in the midst of dissipation, advanced with rapid strides.

The journey of Anacharsis commences in the second volume; and, in his address to his friends, he explains the motives which induced him to quit his country. 'I am descended you know, says he, from the famous Anacharsis, so much celebrated among the Greeks, and so unworthily treated by his own countrymen. The history of his life and death inspired me, from my earliest

earliest infancy, with an esteem for the nation which had honoured his virtues, and an aversion for that which had despised them.' This disgust was augmented by his having acquired a Grecian slave of Thebes, who, thirty-six years before, had followed the fortunes of the younger Cyrus against his brother Artaxerxes, where he was made a prisoner, and at last was sold to Anacharsis. Timagenes was valuable to his master, because he could talk of Greece, and was acquainted with the manners, government, arts, sciences, festivals, and spectacles of his country, so superior to those of Scythia. Towards the end of the 104th Olympiad he set out with Timagenes, to whom he gave his liberty; and they passed together the Tauric Chersonesus, the Euxine Sea, the Thracian Bosphorus, and arrived at Byzantium, of which the traveller gives a description; from whence they proceed to Lesbos.

The mind of the young Anacharsis, formed by nature and reflection, was a stranger in this seat of pleasure, or rather of licentiousness. While he was instructed by the men to be ashamed of his sobriety, and by the women of his modesty, he formed an acquaintance with Pittacus, Alcæus, and Sappho. Pittacus was the deliverer and legislator of his country; but, terrified with the example of Periander of Corinth, who became from the same character a tyrant, he wished to abdicate his authority: he felt the difficulty of continuing for a long time virtuous, when in possession of power. Alcæus would be every thing that he was not. In battle he ran away; as the rival and enemy of Pittacus he was exiled, and at last forgiven by him whom he had so injuriously opposed. 'Poetry, love, and wine consoled him for his disgrace. In his first writings he had displayed his hatred of tyranny: he now sung of the gods, particularly those who preside over pleasure. In a degree of intoxication, he composed those songs which have been the admiration of posterity. He united sweetness to force, richness to precision and perspicuity. He rises almost to the height of Homer when he speaks of battles, or aims at intimidating tyrants.' Alcæus loved Sappho: 'he wrote to her one day, "I would explain myself, but am ashamed"—Sappho replied, "your cheek would never blush, if your heart was not in fault."—'I am divided, says Sappho, between the love of pleasure and of virtue. Without virtue, nothing is so dangerous as riches, and happiness consists in the union of both.' Anacharsis could not reconcile these sentiments, and the public respect she received, with the infamous manners attributed to her. He enquired of a Greek, who replied, 'When I read some of her works I cannot excuse her; but she has some merit and many enemies—I dare not, however, condemn her.' Anacharsis apologises for her—'Wishing, says he, to inspire the Lesbian women with a love of literature, she gave up her leisure to their instruction: she loved her pupils to excess, because she could not love with moderation.'

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From Mytelene Anacharsis goes to Thebes; though he defers a description of the city, &c. till his return to it. He now sees only Epaminondas, to whom he is introduced by Timagenes. To Epaminondas antiquity has done justice: our author's brilliancy cannot add to it. We shall prefer transcribing one or two of his familiar anecdotes. 'We found him one day, says the Scythian, with many of his friends round him. He said to them—"Iphodnas has a marriageable daughter, and is too poor to give her a portion. I have taxed each of you according to his fortune. When I go out I will present this honest citizen to you: it is just that he should receive this benefit from you, and that he should know his benefactors." Every one agreed to this plan, and departed, thanking him for his confidence.—Again. 'The more easy of access he was in company, the more severe he appeared when he thought it necessary to maintain the decorum suitable to every station. One of the lowest of the people, and a man sunk in debauchery, was detained in prison. "Why, says Pelopidas to him, have you refused me his pardon, to grant it to a courtesan?" 'It is, replied Epaminondas, because it was not suitable for such a man as you to interest yourself for such a person as he.'

On his arrival at Athens he runs to the Academy, and sees Plato: he flies to the apartment of the painter Euphranor, and feels that species of intoxication which the presence of celebrated men and the pleasure of approaching them causes at the first moment. He then fixes his attention on the city, looks round it, and returns to the Academy with his host Apollodorus, husband of the niece of Timagenes. He there again sees Plato, and feels himself penetrated with that respect which his presence always inspires in that place.

'Though at the age of sixty-eight, he still retains, says the Scythian, some freshness. He had received from nature a robust constitution, but his travels impaired his health, which he had re-established by an austere regimen; and the only inconvenience that remained was a habit of melancholy, which was common to him with Socrates. He had regular features; a serious air; eyes full of sweetness; an open forehead, deprived of hair; a large chest; high shoulders; much dignity in his deportment, gravity in his walk, and modesty in his manner.' But we cannot be particular on every subject: Plato's life, travels, writings, death, &c. are described at length in the second volume. Let us next turn to the Areopagus.

Whether this institution was owing to Cecrops or to Solon, its dignity, integrity, and honour were for ages unimpeached; and, if an archon had it in his power to escape from the severe examination, which he was obliged to undergo before his admission into that assembly, or to deceive his examiners, he would soon feel the contagion of virtue, or at least be obliged to appear virtuous. The Areopagites watch over the conduct of their members, and are said to have punished one who killed a sparrow

sparrow that had taken shelter in his bosom, as a person without pity, and therefore improper to decide on the lives of his fellow-citizens. To this tribunal the innocent repaired without fear, and the guilty with a certainty of no greater punishment than their crime demanded. Its jurisdiction is confined to personal injuries, premeditated homicides, fires, poison, and some less essential faults. Treason against the state, or disrespect to religion, is judged by the people at large: the Areopagites only arrange the informations, and bring on the trial, which is conducted with great solemnity. Each person puts his ballot either into the urn of pity or of death; and in case of an equal division, an officer is empowered to put the suffrage of Minerva, in favour of the accused, into the former. When the madness of folly or faction drives the people into measures injurious to the state, the Areopagites have authority to induce them to revise, and sometimes to reverse their decisions. At last their power was destroyed by Pericles, who found it interfere with his own.

Our traveller leaves Athens for a little while, and goes to Corinth, where the reader must follow him, if he would be acquainted with Timoleon and Xenophon, though we meet with Xenophon again at Scillonte. From thence he proceeds to Phocis, where he describes the Pythian games, the temple and the oracle at Delphos, with so much brilliancy and force, as to bring the images completely before the reader's eye.—We must, however, remain a little longer at Athens.

Education is strictly attended to, he tells us, at Athens; and its objects are, to give the body and mind as much force as they can admit of. The wife of Apollodorus, during his residence, lies-in of a son, and, of course, he sees all the customs from the first dawn of the child's existence. These are, in general, known; and they are, in other respects so numerous, that it is impossible to give any abridgment which will be interesting or useful. Apollodorus received the most illustrious personages at his house; and, among them, Aristotle. Lysis, the son of Apollodorus, was asking how the merit of a book should be judged of? Aristotle answered, 'if the author has said every thing that is necessary, no more than is necessary, and in a proper manner.' We believe this sentence occurs in Aristotle's works; but, if closely adhered to, modern authors would sometimes suffer.—Aristotle would have been a severe reviewer.—The music of the Grecians is examined in two dialogues, which we remember were formerly published separately.

The chapters, which treat of the manners of the Athenians, bring before us what Theophrastus has ridiculed and Plutarch censured. The abbé also supposes the young Scythian introduced to the house of Euclid, who possessed the best collection of books of every kind. 'I found myself, says Anacharsis, in the midst of the first geniuses of Greece: they lived, they breathed in their works around me; and their silence even
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augmented my respect. The assembly of all the sovereigns of the earth would have appeared less awful. Some moments afterwards, I cried—how much knowledge refused to the Scythians!—Again, I more than once exclaimed—how much knowledge useless to man!

Aristippus, the disciple of Socrates, returned, about this time, and opened his school. Anacharsis heard him, and was soon acquainted with him. From this philosopher, he learned the system of the first sage of the Heathen world. ‘Socrates, says he, repeated to us frequently, that as we could not understand the essence and quality of things, external to us, we must often take good for evil, and evil for good.’ This reflection, added Aristippus, was astonishing to my indolent mind. Placed between the objects of my hopes and fears, I was obliged to choose, without relation to the appearance of those objects which are uncertain, or to the testimony of my senses, which would deceive. I examined myself, and was struck with that fondness for pleasure and aversion to pain, which nature had placed in my heart, as two certain and sensible signals, to inform me of her intentions. I came from seeing a picture of Parrhasius, from hearing an air of Timotheus,—was it necessary to know the nature of colours and sounds to justify the delight I felt? Ought I not to conclude, that this music and this painting had, at least for me, real merit?’ In this discussion, he could not conceal, that he considered every thing in relation to himself only, and connected with the universe through him and his personal feelings: he was the centre and measure of every thing. This was the philosopher, who said to the tyrant of Syracuse, when asked what brought him to his court? ‘I come to barter your favours with my knowledge, your wants with mine.’ We may pardon this egotism, when he tells us, that he excluded hatred from his heart, and envied only the death of Socrates. Yet, we cannot forgive him, when he heard at Ægina of the condemnation of Socrates, and that his death was deferred a month, in which interval his disciples had access to him, and did not fly to his assistance. ‘It is the consequence of my principles, said he, when the misfortunes of my friends are without a remedy, to spare myself the pain of seeing them suffer.’ One day he solicited Dionysius for one of his friends. The tyrant would not hear him, and he then fell on his knees: when he was reproached for his servility, he answered—‘is it my fault, if this man has his ears in his feet?’

Anacharsis next joins Philotas, to visit the principal provinces, beginning with those to the north. They set out, after supping with Plato, who relates to them his adventures at the court of Dionysius, and explains the cause of the disputes between the younger Dionysius and his brother-in-law Dion. In their journey, they first stopped at Tanagra, the country of the celebrated Corinna. ‘When I look at her works, said the Scythian, I wonder how her poems could be ever preferred to
these

those of Pindar : when I look at her picture, I am surprised, that they were not always preferred !' The Boeotians are represented as laborious, content, and happy : ' it is, says Anacharsis, because they attend to agriculture rather than the arts.'

The plain of Platea, where festivals are kept in honour of those who fell in the battle against Mardonius, who advanced at the head of 300,000 Persians, rouses all his enthusiasm. The Greeks know that monuments might be effaced ; while these solemn and general assemblies preserve the memory of the event, the names of the heroes who fell, and excite the hearers to similar actions. At the foot of the sacred wood of the Muses runs the river Permessus, the fountain of Hippocrene, and the fountain where Narcissus saw himself and died for love. Fabulous history assuredly could not have placed this monument of excessive self-love, in a more appropriated situation. At Lebadea, near the Cave of Trophonius, Philotas spoke slightly of this famous cavern, and mentioned some instances of the impositions of priests. One of the guests blushed and rose from the table : it was a priest of Trophonius ; and our travellers were advised not to expose themselves to the secret, but sure vengeance of the priest, in a cavern whose windings were known only to them. Thus our author artfully escapes from describing what he could not have given any account of ; but he hints at the quackery of the priests, in this experiment, from the information of a Theban.

They arrive at Thebes, and look for the statue of Pindar, without success : they see, however, that of Clon, the most charming singer of his age, who, according to the inscription, rendered his country illustrious. Anacharsis opposes the common opinion of the ignorance of the Boeotians, who may boast of a Hesiod, a Pindar, and a Corinna. Pindar was younger than Corinna, and used to consult her on his Odes. One of them began in this manner.—' Shall I sing of the river Ismenus ; the nymph, Melia ; Cadmus ; Hercules ; Bacchus,' &c. accompanying each name with an epithet. ' You have taken, said Corinna, a sack of wheat to sow a piece of ground, and instead of scattering it with your hand, have emptied the sack in one spot :' another instance of the severity of ancient criticism. Our Scythian's character of Pindar's writing is so exact and appropriated, that we cannot refrain from transcribing it. ' He runs, he flies on the traces of glory, and is eager to display it to his country. When they are not sufficiently brilliant in the conquerors whom he celebrates, he seeks it in their ancestors, in their country, in the institutors of the games, wherever a ray glances ; and he has the address to join it to those with which he crowns his heroes. When he looks at them, he falls into a delirium, which nothing can stop : their brilliancy is like the star of day ; the man who is crowned, by them, is at the height of happiness. If this man join riches to beauty, he is placed on the throne of Jupiter : but,

to guard him against pride, he hastens to remind him, that he is mortal, and that the earth will soon be his last habitation.'

Our travellers then proceed to Thessaly, where they describe the sorceresses, the Amphyctions, &c.—In the three last chapters, they carry the reader over Epirus, Acarnia, and Etolia, where what relates to the lover's leap and the oracle of Dodona occurs. From thence they proceed to Megara, to Corinth, to Sicyonia, Achæia, and the little country of Elis, sacred to Jupiter, and so much respected, that foreign troops lay down their arms on entering it, and resume them again at their departure. The Olympic games are particularly described.

Anacharsis finds the celebrated Xenophon at Scillontæ, where he returned after the troubles of Peloponnesus were calmed. He owed to the generosity of the Lacedæmonians, a part of the large house which he had in that city, and the rest, in compliance with a vow, was consecrated to Diana. In this retreat, he composed the greater part of his works, and his life was employed in study, as well as those more active exercises which strengthen the mind and body. Xenophon and his son Diodorus were hunters; and Anacharsis describes, in this chapter, the different kinds of hunting common in Greece. 'We found,' says the Scythian, in his conversation, that mildness and elegance, which distinguish his writings.' He had sufficient courage for great actions, and, what is more rare, though not less necessary, for little ones. 'He owed, to the one, an unshaken firmness, and to the other an invincible patience.' He told them of his first acquaintance with Socrates. 'I was very young,' says he, when I met him in a narrow lane. He stopped the way with his staff, and asked me, where the necessities of life were to be procured:—'at the market,' replied I—'but, returned he, where shall we find what is necessary to be an honest man.' 'As I hesitated,' he immediately said, 'follow me and you shall learn.' The chapter is terminated by the interesting history of Panthea and Abradates, which Xenophon relates at the end of a conversation on the question—whether it is above the powers of man to conquer the most violent love?

In this pleasing manner does the abbé Barthelemi diffuse the beauties of the classics, and relate anecdotes little known. We scarcely know how to lay aside these volumes: we hope, however, our readers and our engagements will allow us once more to resume them.

Vie privée du Cardinal Dubois, Premier Ministre, Archevêque de Cambrai, &c. 8vo. Londres.

THE private life of the cardinal Dubois affords a striking instance of the success, which the meanest talents, with brilliancy, address, and flattery may obtain in a licentious and unprincipled court. The cardinal was the son of a provincial apothecary, and, for some time, followed this business, but
low

low debauchery, buffoonery, and a quarrel with one of his companions made him leave Breves; he put on the little band, and became an abbé. In this state we find him at Bourdeaux, and, in his new character, he was introduced to the office of preceptor at the president's, from whence he was driven by the consequences of an amour with the waiting-maid of the lady. He married her and went to Paris, where they separated by consent; and, he thought no more of her till he was unseasonably reminded of the connexion, at the time he was made archbishop of Cambrai. At Paris, he again engaged in the office of preceptor, and, by degrees, rose to be preceptor to the duke de Chartres: in this situation, he procured for his pupil the instruction, which he could not give, and procured too those more disreputable gratifications, which the duke was so fond of. He continued this infamous profession till his death, which occasioned the following epigram to be fixed on the door of the church of St. Honoré, the day of his burial, alluding to 'the' blush of Rome, for having given him the cardinal's purple.

Rome rougit, d'avoir rougi

Le ministre qui git ici.

His first preferment seems to have been a canonry in this church, to which was soon added the abbey of Airvault, at the request of the duke de Chartres. After this event, benefices and abbey were given him in profusion, particularly for having negotiated the marriage between his pupil and a daughter of madame Montespan, the mistress of Louis XIV. contrary to the inclination of madame, the duke's mother. The king met him one day, and accosted him, with a gracious air—'Ah! abbé—I am very glad to see you; how can I recompense the services you have done me?' 'Sire, replied Dubois, whose ambition began already to appear,—your majesty can make me a cardinal.' The king surprised and offended at this impudence turned shortly round, and went into his cabinet.—'Oh, says he, I did not expect this stroke.' In this transaction, however, though the abbé's motives were unworthy, the event was fortunate. 'With her mother's beauty, the dutchess of Chartres, says our author, had a much more advantageous character: great wisdom; much decorum; an excellent heart; sincere piety; a perfect attachment to her husband, the affairs of her family and the education of her children have procured her the approbation of posterity.' The duke always preserved much love and a respectful esteem for her, without giving her, except for his occasional infidelities, the least subject of complaint. His large family showed, that his attachment for her was more constant than for his most distinguished mistresses.'

In 1698, the abbé was sent ambassador to London, where he lived familiarly with Mr. Stanhope, who seems to have known him well.—'Master William, said he, in one of his lively confidential moments, you have the genius of Sancho: you shine like him, in brilliant sallies, little turns, and a play on words.

In a word imagination is your forte ; but on force of mind, extent and consistency of reasoning, you must excuse me ; you do not, I fancy, pique yourself too much.'

The next public business, he engaged in, respected the Spanish succession : his part was short and not very honourable to himself. Yet fresh favours were heaped on him, and the money which he received, was spent in every licentious excess. It shocks both decorum and humanity to read the adventures here recorded, with too few expressions of detestation and horror. Towards the end of the year, the king died, and the abbé expected much from his former pupil, who was declared regent ; but, like our Henry, he trusted to better men. ' On the 31st of December 1715, some months after Louis' death, he said to one of his friends, " I am ruined ; I have just had a terrible scene with his royal highness. I told him, that I could no longer remain with him, with honour ; if he did not employ me.—What would thou have me do for thee, replied the prince ; every one knows, that thou art a rascal : art thou not acquainted with it ? " ' It is true, I returned ; but do you not also know, my lord, that all men are rascals, and differ only in degrees ? Among them, therefore, you must choose those which have most genius, and I have pretensions to that class.' Would you rather, my lord, be served by those heavy souls, who are stiffened by an appearance of probity, who put points on their i's, and carefully observe the longs and the shorts. You want people like myself, who bend and bend again, who may be turned as you please : others are good for nothing, and you will be always in trammels with them.' On this he retired in disgust. But we add, that the abbé was next day made counsellor of state on the death of the archbishop of Seus, and soon afterwards (July 1716) sent ambassador to Holland, where his address contributed to the conclusion of the triple alliance, signed the 4th of January afterwards. He was then sent on a similar errand to England, to enforce the spirit of the triple alliance, and to secure the tranquillity Europe. His intrigues in this kingdom, and his political manœuvres, after his return, render him equally despicable.

About four years afterwards, the archbishop of Cambray died, and the abbé forced his way into the regent's chamber to solicit the appointment. ' You are a rascal, said the regent ; who will make you a priest ? ' ' Your grand almoner, my lord.'—' But all the world will fall on me for making such a fellow an archbishop.'—' That is easily managed ; write to your chargé des affairs in London, and beg him to apply to the king of England, to request of you the archbishoprick for me, in return for the services done in finishing the triple and quadruple alliances.'—The letter was written, and Dubois appointed. On the 16th of July, the pope (Innocent XIII) made Dubois a cardinal ; and thus ended the most flagrant prostitution of ecclesiastical dignities that the world, with very few exceptions, ever

ever knew. His secular honours were not, however, at an end. In October 1721, he was nominated grand-maître and superintendant of the posts; and, in August 1722, first minister. He was a member also of the French Academy and an honorary member of the Academy of Inscriptions: he died in August 1723, aged very near sixty-seven years. About fifty-six years after his death, M. D'Alembert was appointed to supply the deficiency of the eulogies, and among the rest to write that of the cardinal, but it was received with indifference, if not with disgust. Thus died a man possessed of dignities, power, and riches, an instance, in the language of Arbuthnot, of how little value these acquisitions are in the sight of God, since they were bestowed on the most worthless of men.

His total want of probity is acknowledged by himself and his patron: his other vices are sufficiently conspicuous in the volume before us. Among these, was his violent and habitual swearing. When some servants were speaking of the respective dignities of the prelates of France, 'one said, that the archbishop of Rheims had the highest rank, because he *sacre le roi*, consecrates the king.'—'Oh, said the servant of the abbé Dubois, my master is his superior, for *il sacre Dieu* every day.' But let us turn again to the duke de St. Simon: he will supply us with an admirable anecdote relating to this vice.—'One day, he was with the cardinal; and this eccentric minister wanting something that was not at hand, began to swear, to blaspheme, and to exclaim with violence against his secretaries, saying, that, if there were not enough, he would take twenty, thirty, fifty, an hundred more, and in short made an horrible uproar. Veinier heard him coolly: the cardinal asked him, if it was not a dreadful thing to be so ill served, though he was at so great an expence? He began to be again in a passion, and urge him to answer. "My lord, said Veinier, take one other clerk, and let his only employ be to swear and scold for you: every thing will then go well, and you will have some rest. You will then find yourself well served."

This volume, which contains many curious minute incidents, relating to the court of Louis and of the regent during the minority of Louis XV. as well as with respect to the negotiations, which ended in the triple and quadruple alliances, owes its appearance to a deception of the secretary: The cardinal died without making any provision for him, as was promised. The secretary sent to his nephew a few sheets of this work, as a specimen of his knowledge and his talents. After some time, he was amply rewarded, and gave up his journal. But, in advanced life, recollecting these transactions, and having many similar documents, he, at his leisure, wrote this life. The language and the style are in general modernised; but the peculiarities of the secretary are often preserved. They particularly occur, in the conversation of the abbé with the regent, and we have endeavoured in some degree, to give their force.

The fame of the work and the curiosity of some of the events induced us to give an account of it; but we could wish that the most important of these could be preserved, in a less exceptionable form.

Stirpes Novæ, aut minus cognitæ quas Descriptionibus & Iconibus illustravit. Car. Lud. L'Heritier, Regis Consiliarius. Large Folio. Fasciculi quinque. Paris.

WE are happy to be able to acquit ourselves of a promise long since made, as we have now received the last fasciculi which are published of this work, whose beauty and splendour are only equalled by its accuracy. The author tells us, in his preface, that he means not only to give an account of new plants, but of those old ones which are mentioned by former authors, while their genuine resemblances have been neglected. These plants will be chiefly those of gardens, and particularly the more rare ones of the public garden of Paris, drawn from the life, and never from dried specimens. He earnestly wishes, however, that travellers would select one specimen of their more curious discoveries, for his use, and he promises to publish an account of them with his utmost care.

The first plant is the *Monetia barleroides*, called after M. Monnet, who, we are told, is preparing a vast work, an *Encyclopedia Methodica* of Botany, in which he comprehends every part of the vegetable system. It seems to be the *lycium indicum* of Seba, which is a reputed synonym of the *baleria histris* of Linnæus. It was first discovered by Sonnerat in India: it flowers every year in the hot-house, but never bears fruit.

The next is the *ribes prostratum*, of which the plate is clear, beautiful, and distinct. This plant was first cultivated in France by M. le Monnier: it flowers in the open air, and is easily propagated; but its fruit has no flavour. A description of the *ribes floridum* is subjoined.

The *gomphrena interrupta* follows; and is most exquisitely delineated: it is the *gelosia procumbens* of Jacquin. M. Crofnier brought this plant from St. Domingo in 1778, and the younger Linnæus, who saw it in flower in the year 1782, declared it to be the *gomphrena interrupta* of his father's system. In the autumn it is covered with both flowers and fruit: its root is preserved during the winter in the hot-house.

The *spilanthus albus* was brought from Peru by Dombey, who gave it the trivial name of *salivaria*, from its stimulus on the tongue, and the consequent flow of saliva. The distinguishing mark of this species is the erect, paniculated stalk, leaves oval and entire, flowers white. The receptacle is not naked, which Linnæus supposed to be the characteristic of the genus *spilanthus*. Other species besides this have been discovered with a paleaceous receptacle; the *bidens* may be distinguished

guished from the *spilanthus* by other more certain marks. These genera can never be united.

The *senecio reclinatus* Lin. is a plant from the Cape of Good Hope. It is the *senecio graminifolius* of Jacquin, and affords little subject of remark. It flowers in spring, summer, and autumn, and grows with luxuriance in the green-house.

Osteospermum pinnatifidum is a shrub from the same spot, not yet described. It is of the class *syngenesia polygamia necessaria*. Its leaves are pinnatifid; its flowers of a deep blue, and its seeds not oleous. The warmth of the green-house is sufficient.

Aristolochia siphon is a new plant from South America: it belongs to the *gynandria hexandria*. It is a handsome plant, and illustrated in two plates, one representing the flowers and general habit of the plant; the other a distinct leaf and its fruit. The distinguishing marks we shall transcribe from our author. 'Forma floris curvati recurvatiq[ue] instar siphonis, quoddam syringes tabacarias, sat bene referentis. Limbus trifidus planus. Bractea maxima pedunculo medio insidens. Semina per paria, altero tantum dissepimentis affixò. Arillus communis pro seminibus ejusdem loculi.'

Cupressus pendula, from Goa, is better known by the trivial name of *Lusitanica*, since it is cultivated in Lisbon. It was known both to Miller and Tournefort.

Croton hirtum was discovered by Richard in Guiana: it is an annual plant, flowered only in the year 1783 in France, and died without ripening seeds. It has three orders of glands: the *glandulæ pedicellatæ ad basin folii*, & *ad margines bractei* distinguish it from the *croton glandulosum*.

The *Brucea ferruginea* (more frequently called *antidyseriærica* from its supposed quality) we have more than once had occasion to mention. It is well delineated in this fasciculus, and flourishes very well in Kew gardens.

The first plant in the second fasciculus is the *verbena triphylla*, a plant of Chili, found in Bonaria by Dombey. It does not seem to be very beautiful from its representation; but is curious from its odour, which resembles citron. The Spanish botanists, M. M. Ortega and Palau, think it a species of *aloyfia*, and call it from this circumstance *citrodora*. In France, it is kept in the green-house; in Spain, without any shelter. It flowers in the spring, and ripens seeds. Its distinguishing marks are *caulis fruticosus*, *folia verticillata*, *flores pauculati*, *stamina quatuor & semina duo*. Odor citri.

Another species of vervain, mentioned in this volume, is *verbena globiflora*, called *nepeta maxima* by Sloane, to whom it was known. It came from South America. Differt *verbena stæchadifolia*, *foliis lanceolatis*, *planis nec linearibus plicatis*. A *verbena triphylla*, *floribus capitatis*, *nec paniculatis*; *foliis oppositis nec verticillatis*. A *verbena nodiflora*, *cauli fruticoso*.

The next is the *statice mucronata* of the younger Linnæus

(Sup. 187.) It is a beautiful green-house plant from Africa. Differt itrice sinuata, foliis integris, caulibus frondescens, & admodum crispis.

Atraphaxis spinosa is a plant described by Linnæus, Tournefort, Gmelin, Pallas, &c. It is an eastern shrub, found in Armenia, Siberia, and Persia, and wants no shelter in this climate: the beauty of this plant depends on its white flowers, and the red fruit, with which, like our dog-rose, it is covered through the summer and autumn. The distinction between the *atraxaxis undulata* is sufficiently clear; but it is not so easily discriminated from the *polygonum frutescens*, except from the leaves, which make the essential parts of the character. Indeed, when we compare these two genera, we are led to wish for some intermediate species to unite them, or to discover some more singular and essential characteristic to distinguish them. They must, we think, in the end be united.

The *arenaria Balearica* of Linnæus follows: it was found in the Balears by Richard, and described by Medicus in the Theodore Patavine Commentaries, under the name of *arenaria mucosa*. It occurs on the rocks near Majorca and Minorca, and on the walls of St. Philip in Port Mahon. It was introduced by Richard to the royal garden, and winters in the greenhouse.

At last we find a plant called after the prince of peripatetics. The *Aristotelia macqui* was found in Chili by Dombey, and belongs to the dodecandria monogynia: the name macqui is the common term in Chili. It is an elegant plant, not unlike the tea-tree; flowered in Paris in 1783, but did not bear any seeds. The berries are acidulous and eatable: the natives procure from them a kind of wine, which M. Dombey found to be an excellent antiseptic in a malignant fever.

A plant of the class didynamia angiosperma, found by Dombey in Peru, and called by him *tourretia*, our author has called *Dombeya lappacea*. It flowered in M. Du Hamel's garden, in 1782, and in the royal garden in 1784. Its flower is a dusky violet, but singular, on account of its wanting the under labium, as the *teucrium* wants the upper-lip, and the *amorpha* the carina and wings. In its habit, it is not unlike the hemp, and is rather curious than beautiful.

The *andryola cheiranthifolia*, from the syngenesia polygamia æqualis, was found in the island of Madeira. It is a greenhouse plant, and flowers through the whole summer and autumn. It is distinguished by being covered with glandular villi; but seems in general neither curious nor beautiful. It ripens and is propagated from seeds.

The *siegesbekia flosculosa* was brought from Peru by Dombey: it belongs to the syngenesia polygamia superflua, though there is some doubt whether the antheræ are really distinct. The syngenesious class have generally five stamina: the bellium, cotula, eclipta, and silago only have four; but this plant

has

has three only. We strongly suspect that it is not syngene-
tious.

The next plant is the *urtica arborea* of Linnæus (Sup. 417.) brought from Nivaria, in the Canaries, by Masson. The male flourishes in the green-house at Kew; the female in the royal garden at Paris. It flowers about the end of autumn or beginning of spring. Differt ab *urtica*, alternifoliis floribus, paniculatis; foliis integris, mollibus, caule arboreo.

The first plant of the third fasciculus is the *salvia Formosa*, found in the rocky parts of Peru, by Dombey, and called by him *salvia pyrifolia*. It is a handsome plant, the leaf subcordated; the galea of the corolla barbed; the stalk shrubby and tall (about six feet); the calyx trilobated. It is propagated by cuttings; but, though it has flowered, it has not yet ripened seeds.

The *physalis prostrata* was found by Dombey in the sandy ground near Lima. It greatly resembles the *atropa* in its funnel-shaped corolla, and distant stamina; but its bladder-shaped calyx, containing a berry, makes it clearly a *physalis*: it appears in its habit to be a handsome plant.

The *ehretia halimifolia* (the *lycium Boerhaaviz folium*, Lin. Sup. 150.) appears a much more beautiful plant. It was brought to France from Peru, by Jussieu, and afterwards by Dombey. It flowers in summer and autumn, but seldom bears berries, and is consequently propagated by suckers and cuttings. It lives in the green-house, but formerly flourished in a sheltered southern aspect in the open air. Flores lycii staminibus barbatis; fructus ehretiz, seminibus ossis, tridentatis, bilocularibus, sed tantum duobus. The *ehretia spinosa* differs from it, by having berries with four seeds, and from the *ehretia tetrasperma*, by its spinous branches.

Another species of the *ehretia*, the *ehretia internodis*, follows. It was found in the rocky parts of the island of Mauritius by Commerçon, and called by him *soubria* or *soubriûa*. It was found bearing flowers and fruit in the months of January and February, in that island. Differt imprimis, paniculis lateralibus, alari-internodibus. It resembles greatly the *cordia*, as well as the *ehretia*, and is not very unlike the *varronia*.

The *celastrus lucidus* of Linnæus (Mant. 49.) is a plant from the Cape of Good Hope. It is not very uncommon, but from its habit and flowers was generally considered as a cassine: the fruit, which it first bore in 1785, showed it to be a *celastrus*. It differs from the *celastrus pyracanthus* by the rounder concave leaves, resembling a boat, and the branches being without thorns.

The *stachys circinata* was found by Des Fontaines in the mountains of Zouwans, in the kingdom of Tunis: it was found also on mount Atlas. It loves rocky and shady places, flowers in May, bore seeds in 1785, which grew again spontaneously, and flourishes with vigour in the open air. It differs from

stachys sylvatica, by the leaves being rounder, crenated, but not dentated, and a little whitish from its down; from the *stachys hirta*, by the upper-lip being entire.

The *malva scoparia* is also a new genus from Lima, brought by Dombey. It is a shrub, which in its native soil flowers in July and August, and lives in this climate in the hot-house. It bears seeds, and seems rather inclined to continue the species from these, for it soon dies. It has nothing very singular or uncommon: the name is taken from its furnishing the inhabitants with brooms (*scopæ*) of very indifferent quality.

The *didelta tetragonæ folia* is a new genus, so called because its receptaculum contains a double delta, or triangles, of very different structures. It is a plant from the Cape of Good Hope, belonging to the syngeneia polygamia frustranea. Either for its beauty or its peculiarities it is scarcely worth explaining at a greater length.

The *Zoegæa leptaurea* of Linnæus (Mant. 117.) was brought from the East by Michaux. It is a sufficiently beautiful plant, not unlike the centaury, and probably the *centaurea* of Gmelin. It is a singular genus, for the radius is inversely ligulated: the greatest fissure is downwards, while in other syngeneious plants it is above.

The last plate in this fasciculus represents the *Flacourtia ramontchi*, a new genus from Madagascar, denominated in honour of M. Flacourt, who first sketched the natural history of that island. It was called by Flacourt, probably in the language of the island, *alamontou*; and by Commerçon *Flacurtia Madecassia*. *Ramonchti* is the name which M. Poivre, who first discovered, gave it. The class and order are dioecia icofandria: the male and female plants have flowered in the royal garden at Paris, but have not borne seeds. In fact they have not flowered in the same year. The islanders eat the berries, which the Europeans call plums: a particular description of the plant is added by M. Poivre, the patron of Commerçon, who tells us that the fruit is sweet, with a slight acidity.

The first plant of the fourth fasciculus is the *allionia incarnata* Linnæi, brought from Peru by Dombey. The next is the *asperula calabrica* of Linnæus, which grows over all the western parts of Asia, and is sufficiently known ever since the publication of Dr. Russell. The seeds were first sent by M. Michaux to M. Monnier, who cultivated it at Paris. The *convolvulus hermanniæ* was sent from Peru by Dombey.—*C. foliis subhastatis, postice obtusis; corollis, apice pilosis; pedunculis bifloris*—The plant is wholly whitish.

The *cestrum laurifolium* appears to be a very beautiful plant: it is the *cestrum venenosum* of Miller, and has been long known in our gardens. The diagnosticon, in our author's language, is as follows. Genitalia inclusa; pedunculi brevissimi; folia perennantia nitenta. The *cestrum nocturnum*

num Linnæi (Murray Veg. 190.) is mentioned with its various synonyms, which will be found useful, as this plant has been differently named by botanists, even of the first rank.

Another species of the cestrum, the cestrum auriculatum follows, called by Feuillet hediunda jasminiano flore. It is a stinking plant, from the marshes of Lima. It has been for some time known among the hot-house plants, but has never born seeds, and is easily cultivated by cuttings. The inhabitants of Lima use it externally as a detergent, and internally as a diuretic in syphilis. They think it a good pectoral, but Dombey suspects it to be poisonous. The synonyms of the cestrum veipertin. Lin. (Mant. altera 206.) are added.

The cestrum parqui is a very fœtid plant, also from Chili; the parqui of Feuillet. It is a tender plant, and frequently dies down to the root in winter, from whence suckers arise in the spring. The synonyms of the cestrum diurnum Lin. a plant from the Havannah are added. The distinctions between these species are not easily abridged: for these we must refer to our author; since, if we attempted to shorten, we must mutilate and render them useless.

The illecebrum frutescens, also from Lima, called by some authors celosia Peruviana. I. caule fruticoso, diffuso, dichotomo, foliis oppositis pulverulentis: it comes very near the achyranthis in its double perianthium, and wanting stipulæ; and grows luxuriantly in the green-house.

Zanthoriza apifolia is a plant raised from seed, lately received from America, though it seems to have been the same with the frutex petroselinii foliis, Banisteri (Plukn. Almag. 45, tab. 27c, fig. 4.) It has not yet ripened seeds, and the yellow root, from which it has its name, seems to show that it may be of some use in dying. The filaments are from five to ten; and on this account it has been styled a zanthoxylus, but the nectarium, the structure of the capsule, and its hermaphrodite flowers, unless polygamous, prevent its being a species of this genus.

Tetragonia crystallina is a new species also from the sands of Lima; foliis ovatis crystallino-papillofis, floribus axillaribus. The tetragonia ivæfolia of Linnæus, our author tells us, is an haloragis; and the essential character of the genus haloragis is added from Forster, with the synonyms of the haloragis tetragonia (the tetragonia ivæfolia of Linnæus) and the haloragis prostrata.

The teucrium betonicum is the salvia major, folio glauco serrato of Sloane. It was brought to England from the Madeiras by Masson, and flourishes in the green-house. This species, with the teucrum heterophyllum and abutiloides, whose characters are subjoined, our author thinks are intermediate species between the teucrium and ajuga.—Forster, he observes, tubo corollæ nimium exerto & elongato, labro superiori vix emarginato, nec bipartito, rectius revocarentur ad ajugam, nisi ipsum ajugæ genus ad teucrium amandandum sit.

Plectranthus is a new genus of the *didynamia gymnosperma*, and is the only one of this order which has the nectarium like the spur of a cock; though there are instances of it among the *angiosperma*. It differs also from the *ocymum*, which it in many respects resembles, by the calyx not being scutellated, but unequally divided, with the upper division larger. The *plectranthus fruticosus* was brought from the Cape of Good Hope, and the *plectranthus punctatus* (the *ocymum punctatum* Lin. Sup. 275.) from Abyssinia, by Mr. Bruce. We ought to add, that the nectarium, in this last species, is gibbous, and we strongly suspect that Linnaeus has, with propriety, called it an *ocymum*.

The *ocymum grandiflorum* is the *ocymum filamentosum* of Forskell (*Ægypt* 108.) Its seeds were brought from Abyssinia by Bruce, and it is distinguished by the size of the flower, and the length of the stamina and pistil.

Cheiranthus quadrangulus is the *cheiranthus montanus* of Pallas, and given with some Siberian seeds to our author, by the famous J. J. Rousseau. It flourishes in the open air, but lives only a few years, and is propagated from seed. It is distinguished by its linear leaves, sessile flowers, short quadrangular filiquæ, and the seeds not margined. The characters of the *cheiranthus mutabilis* and *cheiranthus tenuifolius* are added; but our author thinks there is no proper distinction between the *cheiranthus* and the *hesperis*.

The *buphthalmum helianthoides*, a beautiful plant, is subjoined, as it has been lately introduced into France: it is the *helianthus lævis* of Linnaeus. Our author has chosen to form a new genus for it, which he shortly characterises—'Calyx silphii aut Rudbeckiæ; facies Helianthi.'

The *begonia obliqua* is a beautiful plant most exquisitely drawn from Jamaica, and sufficiently well known in England. The *begonia erminea* and *nana* were sent by Brugiere from Madagascar, gathered in the present voyage, from which the French navigators are not yet returned. These are not garden plants, but adapted to this work, from their being original communications drawn from the life. The leaves are used to heal ulcers, and are very singular on account of little spurs or tails on their surface: they are not distinct from the substance of the leaf, and apparently not owing to the bites of insects. The character of the former is *begonia herbacea, foliis subæqualibus cordatis, acuminatis, ciliato dentatis, supra caudato-apendiculatis*; of the latter, *begonia acaulis foliis æqualibus, lanceolatis scapo subtriflora*. The last plant in this fasciculus is the *begonia octopetala*, from the mountains of Lima; it does not seem to flourish, and has not yet flowered: its leaves are acid, and root astringent. 'Diagnoslichon—Folia maxima vitidis; petala æqualia numerosa.'

The fifth fasciculus contains the *columniferæ*, and particularly the species of *fidæ*. There is so much minute distinction in the account of them, that we must content ourselves with

with enumerating their names only, and adding, that the engravings are not unworthy of the general excellence of the other fasciculi. In the continuation of our account, as new fasciculi appear, we mean to return to this before us. The first plant is the hibiscus solandra, and the second, the malope parviflora: the rest are fidas—viz. the fida truncata, angustifolia (Miller), supina, fragrans, paniculata, L. viscosa, L. althæifolia, suberosa ricinoides, jatrophioides, unilocularis, pterosperma, nutans, hernandioides, (Alcææ Plukn. & Sloan. affn.) nudiflora, crassifolia, cistiflora, Mauritiana, beloece, Asiatica, L. pilosa, arborea Lin. & retrorsia.

Revolutions de Paris, dédiées à la Nation, Et au District des Petits Augustins. Paris. Prudhomme.

THIS work is published every week; and we have received fifteen of these numbers, which contain the late transactions so far as the 24th of October last. The author is a warm zealous patriot. He writes with enthusiasm, animation, and energy: he seems to feel pain from the excesses of the mob, and mentions some of their most atrocious acts, as if he wished to escape from the painful ideas which they excited. In general, the descriptions appear to be faithful and accurate.

The flame of liberty burst out with a fury of a fire long suppressed. Our author could publish the following reflections at Paris, even on the 17th of July. They conclude the account of the events of the 12th. 'Base courtiers! Sullied with vice and infamy; how can they contend with any prospect of success against legions of citizens, animated by the torch of sound philosophy, armed with the *sacred rights of the people*, of reason and humanity? Be under no apprehensions, brave nation! intrepid citizens, liberty awaits you!'

It would be useless again to relate events published in every newspaper, or to point out the mistakes of our diurnal vehicles of intelligence or error. We shall mention a few of those circumstances, which we think curious, or which have not been often mentioned. Of these the extracts from the Journals of the Bastille, and the inscriptions left by the prisoners may appear interesting. One of the inscriptions is very affecting. 'Charuel of Chalons, overwhelmed with sorrow in this place, has composed the following verses, waiting for the intelligence of a more happy conclusion:

' Il sortira quand ce cadran
Marquera l'heure & le moment'

The dial that was to mark the hour and the moment was a death's head and some bones. Our author, however, overlooking the application, tells us, that the dial is effaced. Some other verses follow; but the Muses never deigned to visit these gloomy mansions; or if they ever condescended so far, no traces of their presence remain. A reflection of Guiche, on the

the same walls, is well expressed: 'Time flies; eternity approaches; men pass away; and God only remains.' What may be styled poetry is very insipid, not unlike the attempts of Sternhold and Hopkins. Indeed we find very little, notwithstanding the expectations which may be formed, and the promising appearance of the subject, that is worth transcribing. The editor seems to think that the man with the iron mask was Fouguet.

The famous festival, which occurred at Versailles on the 5th of October, and which terminated in bringing the king to Paris, is described at length. Our editor is confident that it was a plot of the aristocracy. He adds a circumstance which we do not remember to have heard before, that there were near 1200 officers at Versailles, who had been gradually drawn there from the different regiments, in consequence of this concerted plan. They had six months leave of absence. This report, however, and some of the other representations are a little suspicious, when we reflect that the editor is a violent demagogue; but as he admits of his correspondent's rectifying his misrepresentations, we cannot suppose that he has committed any considerable error. One of these letters begins with this address, 'Vile demagogue;' and the rest of it is proportionably violent. The few anecdotes we had marked out for transcribing are not we fear new: the following, however, we do not recollect to have already seen.

'This revolution must necessarily make a great impression on the children; and they of course have been collected in companies in every street, with little drums, very sharp swords of wood, and lances tipped with tin. The assembly of representatives have been obliged to forbid these associations, since they had produced some disagreeable accidents: every one would be an officer, and the rank was disputed by arms. Two boys were separated when fighting, with so much violence as to produce blood, and the cause of the quarrel demanded—Indeed, says one, it was my turn to be colonel an hour ago.'

'M. de Calonne (the editor is no friend of the ex-minister) lost no time on the departure of M. Necker, but eagerly transmitted his notes on the memoir sent by this minister to the committee of subsistence. Nothing seems sacred to this ambitious courtier: he attempts every thing, not only calumny, but perfidious imputations: he is prodigal of every means in his power, wishing to prove, without proving any thing. At last he describes the darling minister of the nation, as having for his satellite the spectre of famine, and resting on the torch of sedition.'

If we find any thing new or interesting in the continuation, we shall continue the subject. The plates, with which some of the latter Numbers are illustrated, are executed very indifferently,

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